



WORKSHOP PROCEEDINGS REPORT
**GMOs FOR AFRICAN AGRICULTURE:
CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES**
JULY 2010



*Applying scientific thinking in
the service of society*

www.assaf.org.za

VISIT...

LANZAROTE
Caliente.COM

WORKSHOP PROCEEDINGS REPORT ON:

**GMOs FOR AFRICAN AGRICULTURE:
CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES**

JULY 2010



**Published by the Academy of Science of
South Africa**

**ISBN: 978-0-9814159-7-0
July 2010**

P O Box 72135
Lynnwood Ridge 0040
(Pretoria, South Africa)

1st Floor Block A
The Woods
41 De Havilland Crescent
Persequor Park
Meiring Naudé Road
Lynnwood
0020
Pretoria, South Africa

Web: www.assaf.org.za

Phone: +27 (0) 12 349 66 00/21/22

Fax: +27 (0) 86 576 9521

Email: admin@assaf.org.za

**© Copyright: Academy of Science of
South Africa, 2010**

Reproduction is permitted, provided the
source is acknowledged.

About the Academy

The Academy of Science of South Africa (ASSAf) was inaugurated in May 1996 in the presence of then President Nelson Mandela, the patron of the launch of the Academy. It was formed in response to the need for an Academy of Science consonant with the dawn of democracy in South Africa: activist in its mission of using science for the benefit of society, with a mandate encompassing all fields of scientific enquiry in a seamless way, and including in its ranks the full diversity of South Africa's distinguished scientists.

The Parliament of South Africa passed the Academy of Science of South Africa Act, *Act 67 of 2001*, and the Act came into force on 15 May 2002. This has made ASSAf the official Academy of Science of South Africa, recognised by government and representing South Africa in the international community of science academies.



Foreword

This proceedings report is the product of a two-day workshop hosted by the Academy of Science of South Africa (ASSAf) from 17-18 September 2009. ASSAf, in partnership with the Union of the German Academies of Sciences and Humanities, the Network of African Science Academies (NASAC) and the Uganda National Academy of Sciences (UNAS) received funding from the InterAcademy Panel (IAP) to conduct a study on "Genetically Modified Organisms (GMOs): Opportunities and Challenges in Africa".

A planning committee comprising Dr Hennie Groenewald (Chair), Dr Antonio Llobell and Prof. Ed Rybicki from South Africa and Prof. Patrick Rubaihayo from Uganda was established. The committee held its first meeting in June 2009 and decided to focus on agricultural crops within the context of the African continent. The proposed structure for the follow-up scientific workshop was also formulated at this meeting.

The two-day September 2009 scientific workshop was titled “GMOs for African Agriculture: Opportunities and Challenges”. Invited experts from seven different African countries (South Africa, Uganda, Kenya, Senegal, Cameroon, Zimbabwe and Mauritius), as well as an expert from the Union of the German Academies of Sciences and Humanities, attended the meeting to address issues concerning GMOs in agriculture.

Papers presented at the workshop included accounts of research being undertaken in Africa on GM technology, and highlighted the opportunities created by GM technology and the many challenges faced in applying this technology to African agriculture. It was noted that the capacity to develop GM technology and to evaluate risks was available. Scientists in African countries were ready to engage in scientific and funding partnerships to develop GM technology, and the basis on which regulatory systems can be developed already exists. However, it was recognised that there are numerous challenges that lie ahead, chief of which are those relating to the commercialisation of GM products and the applications of GM technology in the market place.

It was agreed unanimously by participants at the workshop that the conclusions of the workshop should be brought to the attention of policy-makers across Africa and that this should be done through the production of a concise, colourful and digestible policy-makers' document. The production of the workshop proceedings is the first step in this direction.

This study on GMOs was conducted by ASSAf as a forum study, in which invited experts were assembled to exchange views on a particular topic, and through the presentations and debates were able to draw some conclusions. This particular study was conducted under the umbrella of the ASSAf Committee on Science for Poverty Alleviation, underscoring the potential role of GMOs in food security on the African continent. It is sincerely hoped that this study will assist in the alleviation of poverty in Africa.

I would like to thank the IAP for funding this study and particularly wish to express my thanks to those who assisted in the planning of the workshop and all those who contributed the

papers that comprise this proceedings report. Finally, I wish to thank all the staff of ASSAf, particularly Ms Phakamile Mngadi, for the support given to the committee to enable them to complete this task.

Prof. Robin Crewe

President: Academy of Science of South Africa

Acknowledgements

The Committee on Science for Poverty Alleviation of the Academy of Science of South Africa (ASSAf) wishes to express its appreciation to all the presenters, as well as all the individuals who gave their valuable input. The workshop programme giving the names of all presenters is included as Appendix 2.

The valuable leadership and guidance provided by Dr Hennie Groenewald, Chair of the Committee, is gratefully acknowledged.

Prof. Roseanne Diab, Executive Officer, is thanked for her support.

Beverlie Davies (editor) and Profit Creative are also acknowledged for producing this publication.

The following ASSAf staff are also acknowledged: Mr Takalani Rambau, Liaison Manager, for proposing the project to the InterAcademy Panel (IAP) and securing the funding; Ms Phakamile Mngadi, Projects Officer/Study Director of this Forum and Dr Nthabiseng Taole, Projects Manager for their much-valued contributions during the course of the Forum process and the production of these proceedings.

The support offered by all ASSAf staff and others who contributed to the success of this Forum and the ASSAf publication team for the production of this report are also greatly appreciated.

Finally, the Committee acknowledges the financial support provided by the IAP, as well as that provided by the South African National Department of Science and Technology (DST).

Executive Summary

The production of genetically modified organisms (GMOs) in Africa has the potential to alleviate many problems on the continent – at present, millions of Africans are vulnerable to food insecurity and malnourishment. This is particularly evident in rural areas, where people depend primarily on agriculture for food and income. This report focuses on the potential of biotechnology, through GMOs, to provide solutions to such problems.

Biotechnology is defined as “any technique that uses living organisms or substances from these organisms, to make or modify a product, to improve plants or animals, or to develop microorganisms for specific uses” (Office of Technology Assessment of the United States Congress).

Modern biotechnology has been associated with genetic engineering or genetic modification (GM). Recombinant DNA, or genetic engineering, is a more precise form of biotechnology, allowing a breeder to transfer known, desirable genes into crops, instead of moving large groups of mostly unknown genes into crops, as in most traditional breeding. “genetically modified crops”, often known by the acronym “GM crops”, are usually received with varying emotions worldwide. Nonetheless, GM application, a component of biotechnology, is gradually finding its niche across the globe. Indeed, plant and crop breeders have been using biotechnology to modify the genetic make-up of crops for thousands of years.

African agriculture has for decades been faced by multiple challenges, ranging from low productivity to poor or non-existent markets and infrastructure. There has been a decline in the production of cereals over the past four years, which has been attributed to low-input (i.e. farming based on a reduction of fertilisers, herbicides and insecticides) usage, declining soil fertility, erratic climatic conditions and low government commitment to fund development efforts in the sector. Biotechnology offers a mechanism to increase crop productivity, and as such to contribute towards food security and poverty eradication in Africa.

A decade after GM crops were introduced into the world, their production has grown to about 125 million ha globally. Biotechnology first found its way into Africa through *Bt* maize, which was introduced into South Africa in 2003. Since its introduction, the technology has been found to reduce losses of maize incurred through damage by stem borers. However, there is still a large untapped potential in biotechnology that can be embraced to address Africa's challenges.

Although biotechnology is gradually being embraced across the globe, it nonetheless faces much opposition. Challenges to its adoption include:

- perceptions and attitudes
- access to and use of proprietary technology
- biotechnology policy
- the cost of biotechnology research.

In order to tap into the potential that biotechnology offers to agricultural productivity and food security, there is a need for greater dedication by African governments towards biotechnology development. This can be done by developing their capacity to negotiate access to intellectual property (IP) rights, and to enact and operationalise IP rights and biosafety policies and guidelines that foster technological innovations, delivery and trade.

In **Chapter 1**, the situation with respect to GM crop plants in Germany is investigated. German companies invest large sums of money in plant biotechnology, but much of the research and production is conducted outside Germany due to the hostility of the German public towards GM plants.

The licensing of GM crops for all 27 member states of the European Union (EU) is carried out by the European Council. To date, relatively few products from GM crops have been admitted in the EU for human consumption or fodder and all have to be labelled as GM. It is

noted that in Europe a large proportion of the public is opposed to plant gene technology and that politicians have been influenced by this sentiment.

The activities of the German science academies in conjunction with the InterAcademy Panel (IAP) to counteract the misleading campaigns by GM opponent organisations are explored in this chapter.

The ecological and economic aspects of the cultivation of GM insect-resistant varieties of maize, rice and cotton are summarised, and it is concluded that the growth of these crops by small-scale farmers in developing countries can be beneficial.

Chapter 2 focuses on the role of GMOs in food and nutrition security in Africa. In 2000, the UN adopted the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), many of which have a direct connection with food security. By definition, food security is achieved when all people at all times have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life. Clearly, in the light of this definition, food security poses a major problem for the developing countries of sub-Saharan Africa, where problems of food supply, hunger, under-nutrition and malnutrition exist.

GM technology presents an exciting opportunity to contribute towards the resolution of the African food and nutrition security problem, provided it is carried out within a framework of appropriate biotechnology policy with sufficient financing for human capital development, the construction and equipping of the necessary laboratories and the conducting of rigorously planned, results-oriented GM food research. Research results have shown the possibility of increasing crop yields, improving the storage potential of harvested crops, improving the protein content of starchy foods, biofortification of local foods, and improving the functional potential of local foods.

In **Chapter 3**, some of the opportunities and challenges in the use of GM technology are explored. The use of GM technology and its products is still in its infancy in Africa. South

Africa, which has biosafety regulations in place, is one of the three countries [with Egypt and Burkina Faso] on the continent that are producing commercial GM crops. The GM crops that are produced on a commercial basis have been limited to maize (*Zea mays* L.), cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum* L.), soybean (*Glycine max* L.) and oilseed rape (*Brassica napus* L.). These four crops have been transformed for the two traits of insect resistance and herbicide tolerance. There is a need in Africa also to develop GM crops with other important traits.

One of the very few transgenic crops with virus resistance that has been commercialised is papaya (*Carica papaya* L.). Papaya with resistance to papaya ringspot virus (PRSV) is now grown on a commercial basis by farmers on the Hawaiian islands, where GM technology was used to save the local papaya industry from total collapse due to infection by PRSV. The Hawaiian papaya experience can be used as a model to address the many virus problems that have affected African farming communities for a long time.

Various laboratories across the continent are using GM technology to develop transgenic crops with virus resistance. The first all-African-produced modified plant in the form of transgenic maize with resistance to the maize streak virus (MSV) has been developed. This maize is at present being evaluated under containment. Other projects underway on the continent are also discussed.

As the number of scientists with training in molecular biology, tissue culture and virology increases, there is likely to be a concomitant increase in the number of projects aimed at developing transgenic crops with virus resistance. Against this background, it is concluded that the future for the development of GMOs in Africa looks promising. GM technology in the form of GMO plants with virus resistance could be the key to unlocking the potential of African agriculture by, among other things, addressing and solving the numerous viral disease problems that have hampered the economic production of Africa's major food and commercial crops.

Chapter 4 provides an evidence-based evaluation of the environmental effects of GM crops. Most concerns about GM crops can be categorised as follows: food safety and animal/human health concerns, environmental concerns, agricultural concerns and socio-economic issues.

Some of the studies that have been conducted on potential impacts of insect-resistant and herbicide-tolerant GM crops are highlighted. In order to effectively evaluate GM crops, an acknowledgment of their potential benefits must be made in addition to an evaluation of the potential damage to the environment and human and animal health.

With a large number of GM crops currently under development in Africa it is evident that regulatory authorities in the continent will continue receiving applications for GM trials and/or environmental releases. In order to be able to effectively evaluate these applications, it is imperative that they have access to relevant information and appropriate training.

The application of a multidisciplinary systems biology approach to the evaluation of GM crops is described in **Chapter 5**. The concept of “substantial equivalence” is used to compare GM plants and their non-GM counterparts in terms of changes in gene expression and associated protein and metabolite derivatives as a result of genetic modification. These key compounds have been determined by international standards to form the basis of substantial equivalence. The substantial equivalence approach was adopted by regulatory bodies to ensure that GM plants and foods are as safe and nutritious as their conventional counterparts.

A case study involving the genetic modification of a *Bt* maize cultivar grown in one location over three years (seasons) with its non-GM maize counterpart is presented.

Chapter 6 documents the lessons learned from the commercialisation of a GM potato in South Africa. It is concluded that only larger multi-institutional and multidisciplinary groups stand any chance of success in the commercialisation process and it is noted that the South African authorities appear to be becoming more conservative and less willing to

grant permits. If this is the trend, it may make it more difficult for other African countries to embrace this potentially beneficial technology.

GMOs are produced by one of three methods: recombinant DNA technology, chemical methods, or through nuclear techniques. **Chapter 7** focuses on the use of nuclear techniques in GMO production, noting that they are highly competitive in comparison with non-nuclear technologies, and that huge economic benefits have accrued in other regions through the use of radiation-induced mutations.

An opinion paper on sustainable GMO technologies for African agriculture is presented in **Chapter 8**. Agricultural sustainability usually refers to agronomic sustainability, including aspects such as agronomic practices, productivity and ecological diversity – all factors that should be considered during the risk assessment of a GM crop before it is released commercially. Most GM crops that have been commercialised to date were developed primarily for large-scale farming systems and would, arguably, not impart the same scale of benefits to small-scale and subsistence farmers, typical of developing countries.

Therefore, to allow developing countries to derive the full potential benefits of biotechnology crops, it is proposed that, in addition to the traditional biosafety aspects mentioned above, technology developers should also more carefully consider factors such as the relevance and accessibility of a particular technology to ensure sustainability. Risk assessment and risk management play a critical role in the successful commercialisation of GM crops and should therefore be considered as an integral part of any GM research and development programme. This chapter develops these concepts and presents a risk analysis framework which can be used in an R&D programme to identify, assess and mitigate potential biosafety and other deployment risks.

The sustainability of GMOs usually revolves around their sustainable use in agricultural systems, focusing predominantly on food/feed and environmental safety. Sustainability is therefore often equated with the post-release safety of the GMO, an aspect that is

regulated in all systems and is therefore carefully considered during the development and risk assessment processes. Potential socioeconomic impacts, by contrast, are currently either not regulated in many countries or are considered only at a very late stage of product development. The fact that most of the current commercial GM crops were designed around the needs of specific markets which differ considerably from those in the developing world, and that they were not developed based on locally established priorities and competencies, has resulted in GM products that are unable to deliver positive socioeconomic impacts to many farmers in developing countries.

The sustainable adoption and use of GM technology is also subject to many socioeconomic and practical constraints, which should be considered proactively in *ex ante* sustainability analyses. By integrating sustainability analyses, including biosafety and socioeconomic assessments, into a GMO research and development pipeline, the development of both safe and economically sustainable products could be ensured. Such an approach should also improve the overall efficiency of the innovation system because it will help to ensure the development of safe, relevant and accessible products that are truly sustainable.

The penultimate chapter, **Chapter 9**, recognises that Africa, home to over 900 million people and representing 14% of the world's population, is the only continent where food production *per capita* is decreasing and where hunger and malnutrition afflict at least one in three people. It is the continent that represents by far the biggest challenge in terms of adoption and acceptance of new technologies, and the chapter questions whether agricultural biotechnology can work in Africa.

It is noted that despite the Green Revolution, crop yields in sub-Saharan Africa have hardly changed over the past 40 years and cereal production *per capita* is steadily declining. It is estimated that with current yields, the projected shortfall of cereals will be 88.7 million tons by 2025.

Biotechnology offers considerable opportunity for addressing many of Africa's pressing challenges. Ongoing biotechnology research in Africa focuses largely on attempting to solve local problems associated with food production, health and the environment.

Biotechnology can play a role in increased global crop productivity to improve food, feed and fibre security in sustainable crop production systems that also conserve biodiversity. It can contribute to the alleviation of poverty and hunger, and the augmentation of traditional plant breeding, and can reduce the environmental footprint of agriculture, mitigate climate change, reduce greenhouse gas emissions and contribute to the cost-effective production of biofuel. Agricultural biotechnology is vital for addressing the chronic food shortages in sub-Saharan Africa.

GM technology is employed in only a few African countries, namely South Africa, Zimbabwe, Egypt, Kenya, Burkina Faso, Uganda and Malawi, and to a lesser extent in Mauritius. Of all these countries, only South Africa, Egypt and Burkina Faso have reached the commercialisation stage.

Most countries in Africa have ratified the Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety (CPB) and have received United Nations Environment Programme – Global Environment Facility (UNEP-GEF) assistance to formulate their biosafety frameworks, yet only a few have functioning biosafety legislation that allows field trials of GM products (South Africa, Zimbabwe, Malawi, Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, Burkina Faso, Ghana, Nigeria, Egypt, Tunisia, Morocco and Mauritania).

With the commercialisation of biotechnology products in other parts of Africa, South Africa is no longer the sole producer of biotechnology products in Africa. However, the country remains the pioneer of the technology and is a role model for the rest of Africa. South Africa is seen as the hub of agricultural biotechnology for Africa as it is one of the few countries in Africa that has a well-developed regulatory system and the expertise to manage the technology. However, South Africa seems to be moving towards stricter legislation, contrary to available scientific evidence.

There is therefore a need in South Africa to ensure that decision-makers who develop policies and amend and enforce the existing legislation and regulations are continually educated and informed on biosafety and biotechnology.

Chapter 10 presents the experience of a technology developer in the regulation of GMO activities in South Africa and concludes with some recommendations.

Challenges are experienced at various levels: in the design of the legislative framework, in the operational procedures and in the authorisations granted. It is recommended that legislative frameworks should be functional, practical and operational, while providing protection of the developer's investment in terms of IP. Application forms should be activity-specific, easily accessible and science-based. Assessment of applications by regulators should be timely, transparent and focused on information that will assist in determining the safety of the proposed activity and product. Concerns, decisions and reasons for decisions should be communicated in a timely fashion and be clearly stated. Conditions should be activity-specific, based on agricultural practice and remain consistent to enable implementation, unless supported by scientific evidence that would necessitate any amendment to the conditions. Applications should be processed within the time periods described in legislative frameworks.

CONTENTS

About the Academy	v
Foreword	vii
Acknowledgements	x
Executive Summary	xi
List of Figures	xxii
List of Tables	xxiii
List of Acronyms	xxiv
Introduction and Problem Statement, Dr Gospel Omany	1
1. The Situation Concerning GM Crop Plants in Germany, Prof. Hans-Walter Heldt	11
2. The Role of GMOs in Africa: Food and Nutrition Security, Prof. Carl M.F. Mbofung	41
3. Transgenic Plants with Virus Resistance: Opportunities and Challenges for Africa, Dr Augustine Gubba	57
4. Challenges for GM Technologies: Evidence-based Evaluation of the Potential Environmental Effects of GM Crops, Dr Dennis Obonyo, Ms Lilian Nfor, Dr Wendy Craig and Mr Decio Ripandelli	67

5. Systems Biology Approach to the Evaluation of GM Plants – A Case Study , Dr Eugenia Barros	93
6. Commercialisation of a GM Potato (A Case Study – Lessons Learned) , Mr Gurling Bothma	101
7. The Use of Nuclear Techniques to Produce Improved Varieties of Food Crops in Africa , Dr Yousuf Maudarbocus	113
8. Opinion Paper: Sustainable GMO Technologies for African Agriculture , Dr Jan-Hendrik Groenewald	121
9. Agricultural Biotechnology: Does it work in Africa? , Mrs Remi Akanbi	131
10. Regulation of GMO Activities in South Africa: Experience from a Technology Developer , Ms Michelle Vosges	141
Appendix 1:	147
Committee Members	148
Speakers	150
Staff Members	154
Appendix 2: Workshop Programme	155

List of Figures

Figure 0.1:	Global trends in the yield of cereals (1961–2003)	4
Figure 2.1:	<i>Per capita</i> food consumption between 1961 and 2003	44
Figure 2.2:	Malnutrition trends for African children between 1995 and 2002	46
Figure 2.3:	Vicious cycle of the burden of malnutrition	47
Figure 2.4:	Factors influencing nutritional status	48
Figure 2.5:	Major GMO-producing countries in 2007	51
Figure 3.1:	(a) Maize streak virus (MSV) on maize (<i>Zea mays</i> L.); (b) Cassava mosaic disease (CMD) on cassava (<i>Manihot esculenta</i> L.); (c) Banana (<i>Musa paradisiacal</i> L.) infected with banana bunchy top virus (BBTV); (d) Healthy banana	60
Figure 3.2:	(a) Papaya orchards before GM technology intervention; (b) Papaya orchards after GM technology intervention	62
Figure 8.1:	Integrating sustainability assessments into a GMO crop R,D&C programme	125
Figure 9.1:	Adoption of GM crops in South Africa (James, 2008)	136

List of Tables

Table 2.1:	Projected undernutrition figures	46
Table 2.2:	Some food crop production constraints in Cameroon	50
Table 7.1:	Altered traits of sorghum	117
Table 9.1:	Total area of GM crops planted in South Africa in 2008 (James, 2008)	137

List of Acronyms

AATF	African Agricultural Technology Foundation
ABNETA	Agricultural Biotechnology Network in Africa
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
ARC	Agricultural Research Council
BAU	Business as Usual
BBTV	Banana bunchy top virus
BCMNV	Bean common mosaic necrosis virus
BCMV	Bean common mosaic virus
<i>Bt</i>	<i>Bacillus thuringiensis</i>
CACGP	Commission on Atmospheric Chemistry and Global Pollution
CBSD	Cassava brown streak virus disease
CMD	Cassava mosaic virus disease
CMV	Cauliflower mosaic virus
CP	Coat protein
CPB	Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety
CRIG	Cocoa Research Institute of Ghana
CSIR	Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (South Africa)
CSIRO	Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation (Australia)
CSSV	Cocoa swollen shoot virus
CTV	Citrus tristeza virus
DESA UN	Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations
DST	Department of Science and Technology (South Africa)
EC	European Commission

LIST OF ACRONYMS

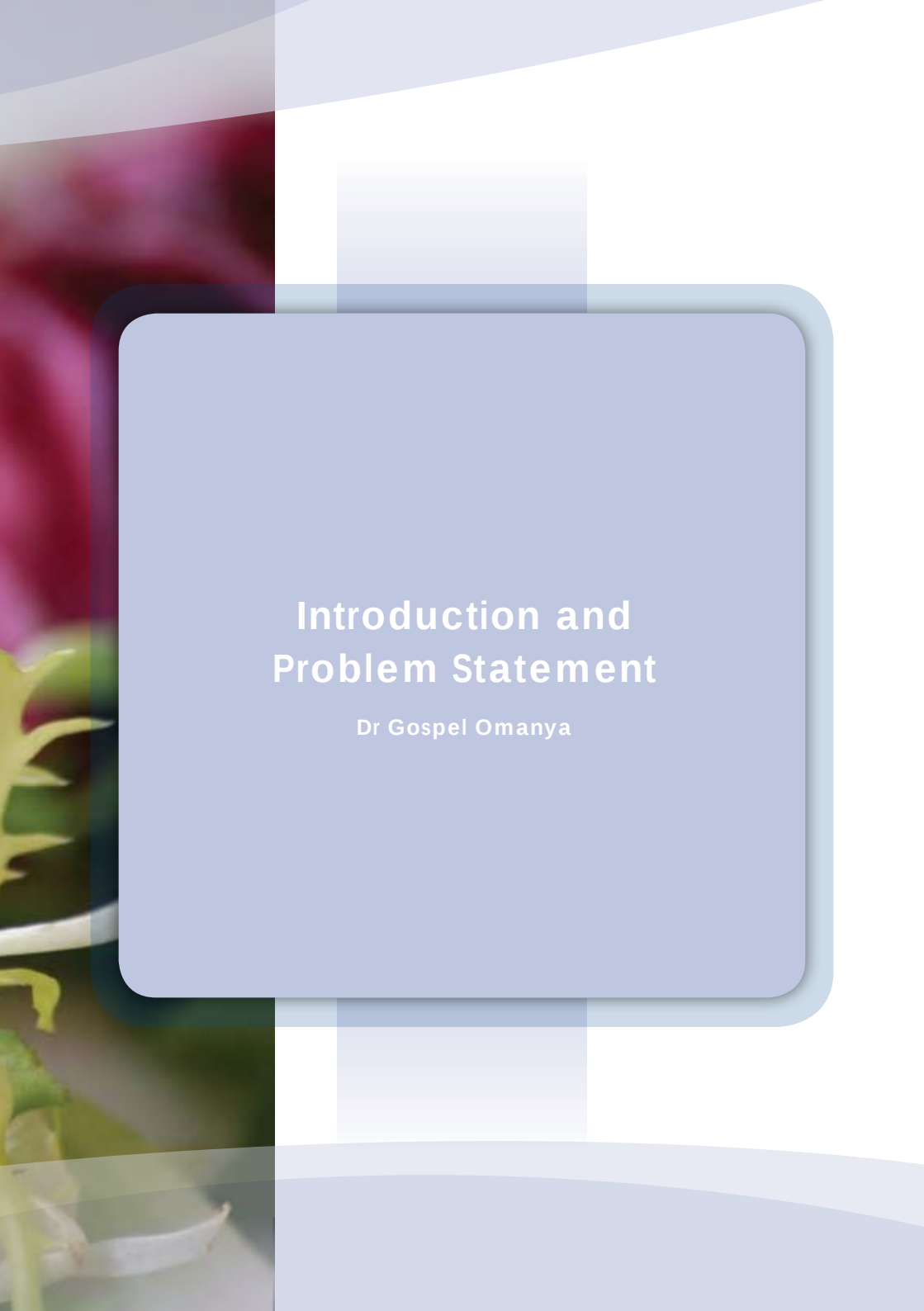
ENSAIC	National Advanced School of Agro-Industrial Sciences
EPA	Environmental Protection Agency (US)
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organisation of the UN
GAEC	Ghana Atomic Energy Commission
GC-MS	Gas Chromatography–Mass Spectrometry
GM	Genetically modified
GMO	Genetically modified organism
GT	Glyphosate tolerant
HCN	Hydrocyanic acid
HPV	Human papillomaviruses
HT	Herbicide tolerant
IAEA	International Atomic Energy Agency
IAP	InterAcademy Panel
ICGEB	International Centre for Genetic Engineering and Biotechnology
ICRISAT	International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics
IEC	Information, Education, Communication
IFPR	International Food Policy Research Institute
IIDMM	Institute of Infectious Disease and Molecular Medicine
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IMPACT	International Model for Policy Analysis of Agricultural Commodities and Trade
IOC	International Ozone Commission
IP	Intellectual property
IPRs	Intellectual Property Rights

IR	Insect resistant
ISAAA	International Service for the Acquisition of Agri-Biotech Applications
KARI	Kenya Agricultural Research Institute
MAS	Marker-assisted selection
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MSV	Maize streak virus
NARS	National Agricultural Research Services
NASAC	Network of African Science Academies
NMR	Nuclear Magnetic Resonance
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PCA	Principal component analysis
PDR	Pathogen-derived resistance
PLRV	Potato leafroll virus
PRSV	Papaya ringspot virus
PTM	Potato tuber moth

LIST OF ACRONYMS

PVX	Potato virus X
PVY	Potato virus Y
R,D&C	Research, development and commercialisation
RR	Roundup Ready
SANGONeT	Southern African NGO Network
SPCSV	Sweet potato chlorotic stunt virus
SPDV	Sweet potato disease virus
SPFMV	Sweet potato feathery mottle virus
TSWV	Tomato spotted wilt virus
UNAS	Uganda National Academy of Sciences
UNEP-GEF	United Nations Environment Programme – Global Environment Facility
WABNet	West African Bioscience Network
WHO	World Health Organisation
WTO	World Trade Organisation
ZYMV	Zucchini yellow mosaic virus



The book cover features a light blue square with rounded corners and a subtle drop shadow, centered on a white background. To the left of the square is a vertical strip showing a close-up of a pink flower and green leaves. The square itself contains the title and author's name in white text. The overall design is clean and modern.

Introduction and Problem Statement

Dr Gospel Omanyia

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

DR GOSPEL OMANYA

African Agricultural Technology Foundation (AATF), Kenya

Introduction

Biotechnology: A Historical Perspective

Biotechnology is “any technique that uses living organisms or substances from these organisms, to make or modify a product, to improve plants or animals, or to develop microorganisms for specific uses” (Office of Technology Assessment of the United States Congress). In this broad sense, plant and crop breeders have been using biotechnology to modify the genetic make-up of crops for thousands of years (McHughen, 2008). In fact, no currently grown crop varieties are “natural”, in that all arose from human intervention in moving genes around to create new genetic combinations. A new variety, whether developed using traditional or modern breeding methods, must carry a new combination of genes not present in nature. Modern biotechnology has been associated with genetic engineering or genetic modification (GM). Recombinant DNA, or genetic engineering, is a more precise form of biotechnology, allowing the breeder to transfer known, desirable genes into crops, instead of moving large groups of mostly unknown genes as in most traditional breeding. But the words “genetically modified crops”, often known by the acronym “GM crops”, are usually received with varying emotions worldwide. Nonetheless, GM application, a component of biotechnology, is gradually finding its niche across the globe.

Incidentally, biotechnology has been with us throughout history, since the domestication of plants around 8000 BC. For instance, brewing, fermentation, bread- and cheese-making and the production of dairy products were some of the earliest forms of applying biotechnology. Groundbreaking work by Mendel in the 1860s laid the foundation for classical plant breeding. This took advantage of natural genetic recombination within

species, an aspect that has been exploited by farmers over the centuries, resulting in superior harvests in successive generations. Later in 1901, it was discovered that the bacterium *Bacillus thuringiensis* (*Bt*) was able to produce toxins that are lethal to insects but harmless to humans. Furthermore, the discovery of *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* in 1907 offered a unique tool for transfer of the *Bt* genes to crops, ushering in a new era of gene transfer across plant species, a process that became clearer following Watson and Crick's unravelling of the DNA structure in the 1950s. Biotechnology thus provides a complementary approach to conventional breeding methods.

African agriculture and biotechnologies

African Agriculture: Challenges and Future Prospects

Millions of Africans are vulnerable to food insecurity and malnourishment. This is particularly evident in rural areas, where people primarily depend on agriculture for food and income. However, the agricultural sector on the continent has for decades been faced by myriad challenges, ranging from low productivity to poor or non-existent markets and infrastructure. As shown in Figure 0.1, the yields of cereals in sub-Saharan Africa have stagnated over the last four decades, despite the tremendous growth recorded in other regions of the world. This decline in productivity has been attributed to low-input usage, declining soil fertility, erratic climatic conditions and low government commitment to fund development efforts in the sector.

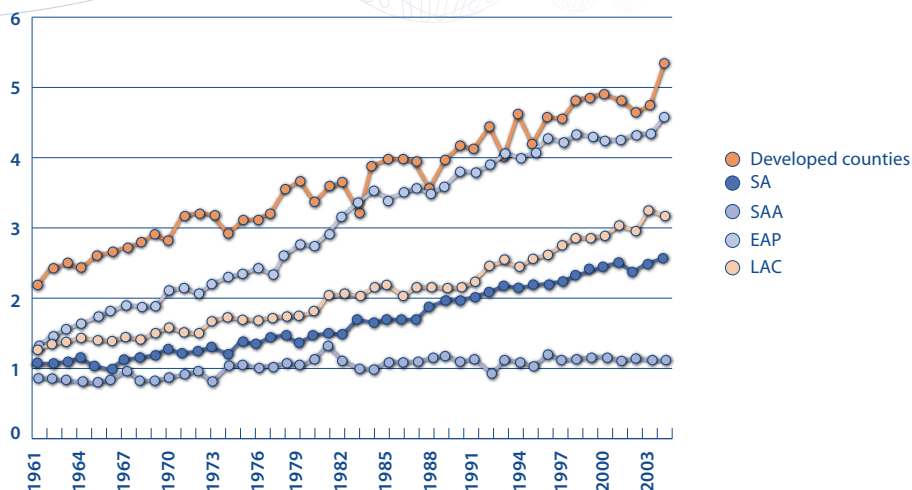


Figure 0.1: Global trends in the yield of cereals (1961–2003)

As a result of the incidence of poverty among small-scale farmers in Africa, it has been difficult for them to purchase adequate inputs, a predicament that further fuels the vicious cycle of poverty. Indeed, Chambers (1983) elaborates that poverty contributes to physical weakness through the lack of food, small physiques, malnutrition leading to a low immune response to infections, and the inability to reach or pay for health services. Furthermore, the climate change predicament is predicted to aggravate the situation considering that only 4% of crop land on the continent has access to irrigation and that 33% of the land is subject to moderate drought. The rise in global food prices has caused a dilemma since government has to spend huge sums of foreign exchange for food imports.

However, as noted by the World Bank (2008), agriculture can work in concert with other sectors to produce faster growth, reduce poverty and sustain the environment. This is because agriculture contributes to development as an economic activity, as a livelihood and as a provider of environmental services, making the sector a unique instrument for

development. However, to achieve this, there is a dire need for renewed efforts towards revitalising agriculture at local and global levels since agricultural productivity growth is synonymous with poverty alleviation. Agriculture can be a main pathway leading out of poverty by making small-scale farming more productive, profitable and sustainable through the establishment of policy instruments that embrace innovation and technology, market reforms and improved linkages between farmers and research.

Biotechnology and Agricultural Development

The debate on the linkage between rural development and biotechnology has been going on for some time. However, the important question has been: “What role can biotechnology play in solving the farm problem and make agriculture work for the poor?” As noted by USAID (2007), agricultural biotechnology offers an additional tool for increasing crop productivity, especially when conventional methods cannot deliver on breeding targets. This offers a great breakthrough in Africa towards advancing even faster towards food security and poverty eradication. A number of studies have been done to assess the impact of GM crops on farm productivity in developing countries (e.g. Huang *et al.*, 2005; Zilberman *et al.*, 2007). There is unanimous agreement that biotechnology is indeed an important tool for increasing farm productivity for the smallholder farm sector. A study by Subramanian and Qaim (2009) provides empirical evidence that production of *Bt* cotton has direct and spill-over positive socioeconomic effects on all types of rural households through improved yields and increased employment. These important findings point to the role that GM crops can play in solving poverty and development issues.

Status of Biotechnology in the Developing World

A decade after genetically modified crops were introduced into the world, their production has grown to about 125 million ha globally (GMO Compass, 2009). According to the annual report of the International Service for the Acquisition of Agri-Biotech Applications (ISAAA, 2008; Karembu *et al.*, 2009) on the global crop situation, a world total

of 13.3 million farmers used GM crops in 2008, 1.3 million more than in 2007. However, over 90% of these farmers are in developing countries, mainly China, India and the Philippines. Although the developed countries are leading in the production of GM crops, with the US alone accounting for close to 50% (62.5 million ha) of the global area under GM crops, production in the developing countries has also been growing gradually. In 2008, China, Paraguay and South Africa cultivated GM crops on an area of over one million ha, and in the same year, Bolivia, Egypt and Burkina Faso cultivated GM crops for the first time. So far, the Philippines has approved 21 transgenic varieties for food, feeds and processing. These include *Bt* maize, herbicide-tolerant maize, rice, soybean, canola, potato, cotton, sugar beet and alfalfa. India has also approved GM cotton which is at present being cultivated on about 1.5 million ha, with other crops (eggplant, rice, cauliflower, tomato, okra, potato and mustard) under trial for potential release. China has about 3.3 million ha under GM crop production – the Chinese government has committed vast resources (US\$1.4 billion) for development of agricultural biotechnology, and has established more than 100 biotechnology laboratories, signifying intent and commitment by the country to use biotechnology to address its food security challenge. Two Latin American countries, Argentina and Brazil, are following the global giant in GM crop production with 21.0 and 18.5 million ha respectively, mainly *Bt* maize and Roundup Ready soybean. Other countries producing GM crops (*Bt* cotton, *Bt* maize and Roundup Ready soybean) in the region are Paraguay, Bolivia and Uruguay.

However, despite the fact that Africa is the only continent whose *per capita* food production has been declining, biotechnology has been adopted on a very cautious basis. By 2007, only the Republic of South Africa had benefited from the commercialisation of GM crops. However, in 2008, two more countries, Egypt and Burkina Faso, joined South Africa. As Africa gradually embraces innovative techniques, the development and implementation of biosafety policies and laws will be key in guiding the commercialisation and use of biotech products.

Current Biotechnology Solutions in Africa

Biotechnology found its way into Africa through *Bt* maize introduced into South Africa in 2003. Since its introduction, the technology has been found to reduce losses of maize incurred through damage by stem borers (Wanyama *et al.*, 2004). James (2008) reports that GM maize in South Africa offers a grain yield advantage of 11% and increased revenue of US\$35 per ha. In Burkina Faso, *Bt* cotton was commercialised in 2008, making this the third African country to commercialise GM crops after South Africa and Egypt (Kerumbu *et al.*, 2009). It was reported that the technology has produced 15% higher yields and that insecticide sprays have been reduced by two thirds, hence reducing labour costs and environmental pollution. Vitale *et al.* (2008) further reports that 15 102 ha were planted for cotton seed production in 2008 and this could result in 163 265 ha of *Bt* cotton in 2009 in Burkina Faso. In North Africa, Egypt has several GM crops under field trials, including maize, melon, potato, wheat and sugar cane (Mansul, 2005). However, the country is yet to enact a biosafety law even though some of the tested crops (potato, squash, maize and cotton) are approaching commercialisation.

Potential Biotechnology Solutions in Africa

As mentioned earlier, a number of biotechnological successes such as *Bt* maize in South Africa and *Bt* cotton in Burkina Faso are beginning to benefit farmers in Africa. However, there is still a large untapped potential in biotechnology that can be embraced to address Africa's challenges. In recognition of these potentials, the African Agricultural Technology Foundation (AATF), an international not-for-profit organisation, is leading several public-private partnerships to access, develop and deliver various technologies and products to resource-poor farmers in Africa. These include herbicide-tolerant maize varieties for *Striga* weed control, cowpea varieties with resistance to Maruca pod borers, drought-tolerant maize varieties, banana varieties resistant to bacterial wilt, rice varieties with better productivity under saline and low soil nitrogen, and reduction of aflatoxin contamination in maize grains.

Challenges and future perspectives

Challenges to the Use of GM Crops in Africa

While biotechnology is gradually being embraced across continents, it nonetheless faces challenges to its adoption. Such challenges may be founded on perceptions and attitudes which vary depending on the level of information and knowledge of stakeholders.

Perceptions and attitudes

A number of perception and attitude issues have been raised about GM crops by several stakeholders, including environmental activists. These groups have raised concerns over the potential effects of GM crops on human health. Human health concerns have been raised over food safety aspects associated with allergenicity, toxicity, horizontal transfer, antibiotic resistance and changed nutrient levels. Concerns have also been raised over the effect of GM crop production on the environment, especially their impacts on non-targets, crop-to-weed gene flow and pest resistance build-up. It is important to note that biotech products actually undergo intense safety tests to minimise any negative effects, if any.

Access and use of proprietary technology

New technologies, particularly biotechnology, are increasingly coming with intellectual property protection. This may promote private sector research and development, but it may also impose higher royalty fees that could spill over into product prices that outpace the particularly resource-poor farmers in Africa. Fortunately, institutions such as the AATF have the prime mission of negotiating for royalty-free access to proprietary technology such that end-products are affordable to small-scale farmers in Africa. In delivering its products, the AATF facilitates stewardship to ensure responsible and sustainable use for long-term benefits.

Biotechnology policy

Although there have been success stories about biosafety legislation in Africa, progress has been a bit slow, with only seven countries (Burkina Faso, Mali, Mauritius, South Africa, Sudan, Zimbabwe, Kenya) having developed functional national biosafety frameworks. A further 13 countries (Ethiopia, Ghana, Madagascar, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Uganda, Tanzania, Zambia, and Egypt) are at various stages in the development of biosafety policies and laws. Apparently the raging debate on GM crops has sent mixed signals, hence influencing decision-making at policy level and slowing progress.

The cost of biotechnology research

The cost of biotechnology research has been prohibitive and this has been a major challenge in African countries, considering that most of them have minimal budget allocations for agricultural research and development. According to Kalaitzandonakes *et al.* (2007), the cost of regulatory compliance for *Bt* maize ranges between US\$7 million and US\$15 million over and above the development cost. Therefore this requirement for huge investments has been a key drawback in the progress towards breakthroughs in biotechnology research and development.

Policy implications and future perspectives

From the foregoing discussion, it is apparent that the adoption of new agricultural technologies, including biotechnologies, will play an important role in closing the current harvest gap in African agriculture and in helping African farmers to cope with the impact of climate change. GM also offers an opportunity to move faster in addressing food security and poverty challenges among Africa's households. Meanwhile, the increasing trend of Intellectual Property Rights (IPRs) in agricultural research will most likely continue.

To tap into the potential that biotechnology offers to agricultural productivity and food security, there is a need for renewed dedication by African governments towards

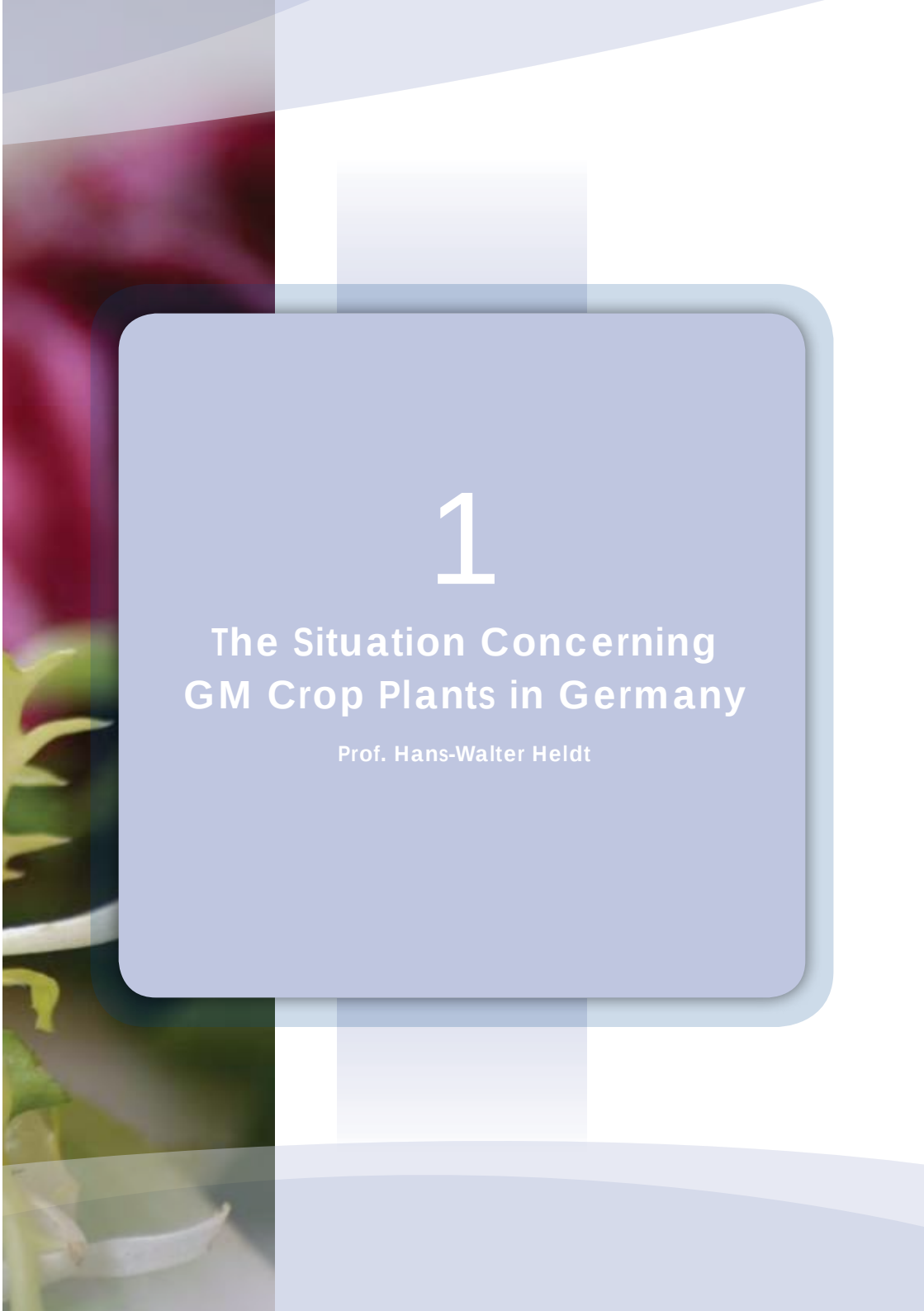
biotechnology development. This can be done by developing their capacity to negotiate access to IP, enact and operationalise IP and biosafety policies and guidelines that foster technological innovations, delivery and trade. It is essential for African countries to understand the importance of minimising the cost of regulations in order to maximise the benefits from biotechnology because positions taken by other regions may not necessarily be suited to Africa. Furthermore, there is need for sound stewardship that will ensure responsible and sustainable use of biotechnologies while minimising any risks.

Acknowledgements

The author is grateful to the AATF, who financed participation at the workshop and to the Academy of Science of South Africa (ASSAf) for the invitation. Special thanks to Daniel Kyalo of the AATF, whose unwavering support enabled the completion of this review article.

References

- Chambers, R. 1983. Rural development: Putting the Last First. London: Longman.
- GMO Compass. 2009. Available at: <http://www.gmo-compass.org>.
- Huang, J., Hu, R., Rozelle, S. & Pray, C. 2005. Insect-resistant GM rice in farmers' fields: assessing productivity and health effects in China. *Science*, 308(5722):688-690.
- ISAAA (International Service for the Acquisition of Agri-Biotech Applications). 2008. Global status of commercialised biotech/GM crops. *ISAAA Brief* 39-2008.
- Kalaizandonakes, N., Alston, J. & Bradford, K. 2007. Compliance costs for regulatory approval of new biotech crops. *Nature Biotechnology*, 25(5): 509-511.
- Karembu, M., Nguthi, F. & Ismail, H. 2009. Biotech crops in Africa: The final frontier. ISAAA AfriCenter, Nairobi, Kenya.
- McHughen, A. 2008. Available at: <http://agribiotech.info/details/McHughehn-Regulations-Submitted%20to%20web%2002.pdf>.
- Subramanian, A. & Qaim, M. 2009. Village-wide effects of agricultural biotechnology: the case of *Bt* Cotton in India. *World Development*, 37(1): 256-267.
- Wanyama, J. M., de Groote, H. Mose, L., Odendo, O., Ouma, M., Owuor G., Lutta, M., Ndung'u, J. & Mutoko, M. 2004. Economics of insecticide use and potential for *Bt* maize varieties in the control of stalkborer in Kenya. Proceedings, African Association of Agricultural Economists. Inaugural Symposium, 6-8 December 2004, Nairobi, Kenya.
- Zilberman, D., Ameden, H. & Qaim, M. 2007. The impact of agricultural biotechnology on yield, risk, and biodiversity in low-income countries. *Jl Devel Stud*, 43(1): 63-78.



1

The Situation Concerning GM Crop Plants in Germany

Prof. Hans-Walter Heldt

THE SITUATION CONCERNING GM CROP PLANTS IN GERMANY

PROF. HANS-WALTER HELDT

Union of the German Academies of Sciences and Humanities, Germany

1 Plant research in Germany

In Germany, experimental plant research has a long tradition. The first publication on a transgenic plant was by Jeff Schell's group at the Max Planck Institute for Plant Breeding Research in Cologne together with the group of Marc van Montagu in Gent, Belgium (De Block *et al.*, 1984). At present, a large number of institutions in Germany are engaged in experimental plant research, examples of which are given below. This list, which is far from complete, includes large research institutes with up to several hundred staff members and research groups at universities. The research institutes, as well as universities, carry out primarily basic research, which is in many cases related to biotechnical applications.

1.1 The Max Planck Society

The Max Planck Society for the Advancement of Science is an independent, non-profit organisation that promotes basic research. With about 80 institutes, it supports promising research activities in life sciences, natural sciences and humanities that require personnel and equipment expenditures that universities cannot afford.

- (a) **Max Planck Institute for Molecular Plant Physiology**, Potsdam-Golm (Prof. Ralph Bock, Prof. Mark Stitt, Prof. Lothar Willmitzer). From genome structure to genome function, network analyses, genetic diversity, phenotyping, data mining and biomodelling and biotechnology.
- (b) **Max Planck Institute for Plant Breeding Research**, Cologne (Prof. George Coupland, Prof. Maarten Koorneef, Prof. Paul Schulze-Leffert). Plant developmental biology, plant breeding and genetics, plant microbe interactions.

- (c) **Max Planck Institute for Chemical Ecology**, Jena (Prof. Ian T. Baldwin, Prof. Wilhelm Boland, Prof. Jonathan Gershenzon). Molecular ecology, plant defense mechanisms, metabolism of secondary plant compounds.

1.2 The Leibniz Association

The Leibniz Association is the umbrella organisation for 86 institutions conducting research or providing scientific infrastructure. They conduct strategic theme-based research with an interdisciplinary approach.

- (a) **Leibniz-Institute of Plant Genetics and Crop Plant Research (IPK)**, Gatersleben (Prof. Andreas Graner, Dr Winfried Weschke, Dr Helmut Baeumlein, Dr Udo Conrad, Dr Lothar Altschmied, Prof. Falk Schreiber, Dr Mario Gils, Prof. Nicolaus van Wieren, Dr Michael Melzer).

Gene bank with 148 000 accessions from 3 049 plant species and 801 genera, and herbarium with 390 000 samples. Seed development, gene regulation, phyto-antibodies, expression mapping, plant bioinformatics, hybrid wheat, molecular engineering, molecular farming, elucidation of genes regulated by biotic and abiotic stress, structural cell biology.

- (b) **Leibniz-Institute of Plant Biochemistry**, Halle (Prof. Steffen Abel, Prof. Dierk Scheel, Prof. Ludger Wesjohann). Molecular signal processing, stress and developmental biology, bioorganic chemistry of natural products from plants and fungi.
- (c) **Institute for Biosafety of Genetically Modified Plants**, Quedlinburg and Brunswick (Prof. Joachim Schiemann). Risk assessment and monitoring of GM organisms and co-existence of cultivation systems with and without GM plants, investigation of possible effects of GM plants on nature and sustainable agriculture. The institute gives advice to the government on the safety aspects of gene technology.

1.3 University of Bielefeld

- (a) **Department of Genetics** (Prof. Alfred Puehler). Research to identify genes from plants and microorganisms responsible for relevant biological phenomena, e.g. symbiotic nitrogen fixation. Biological safety research analyses of the potential and probabilities of a putative horizontal gene transfer in natural habitats.
- (b) **Department of Biochemistry and Physiology of Plants** (Prof. Karl-Josef Dietz). Analysis of protein structure and function (peroxiredoxins, V-ATPase), salt adaption and tolerance, heavy metal tolerance.

1.4 University of Cologne

Botanical Institute II (Prof. Ulf Ingo Flügge). Molecular plant physiology (chloroplast translocators). Plant membrane database, improved antioxidant content for food applications, European Arabidopsis stock centre (Tamara).

1.5 University of Düsseldorf

- (a) **Department of Developmental and Molecular Biology of Plants** (Prof. Peter Westhoff). Genetic analysis of chloroplast differentiation, molecular basis and evolution of C4 photosynthesis.
- (b) **Department of Plant Biochemistry** (Prof. Andreas Paul Weber, Prof. Peter Jahns). Systems biology and biochemistry of intracellular transport processes in plants, photo-oxidative stress in plants.

1.6 University of Erlangen

- (a) **Department of Molecular Plant Physiology** (Prof. Norbert Sauer). Multiple aspects of transport through plasmodesmata, long-distance assimilate allocation between tissues and organs, and cell-to-cell signalling in plants.

- (b) **Department of Biochemistry** (Prof. Uwe Sonnewald). Molecular plant biochemistry and physiology (photosynthetic carbon fixation and its use for primary and secondary metabolites). Plant biotechnology (plant-made vaccines and antibodies, improved food and feed sources with reduced allergenic potential and increased nutritional value).

1.7 University of Freiburg

Department of Plant Biotechnology (Prof. Ralf Reski). Production of pharmaceutically relevant proteins by transgenic *Physcomitrella* grown in bioreactors.

1.8 University of Göttingen

- (a) **Department of International Food Economics and Rural Development** (Prof. Martin Qaim). Role of agricultural biotechnology for rural development, e.g. poverty and welfare in India, socioeconomic impacts of banana tissue cultures in East Africa.
- (b) **Department of Tropical Plant Cultivation** (Prof. H. Thiessen). Biogeochemical determinants of land-cover change and land use in savanna cultivation grazing systems.
- (c) **Department of Molecular Phytopathology and Mycotoxin Research** (Prof. Petr. Karlovsky). Role of secondary metabolites in biotic interactions between plants and fungi.
- (d) **Department of Biochemistry** (Prof. Ivo Feussner). Role of oxilipins in plant development and stress response, production of unusual fatty acids in crop plants for industrial purposes.
- (e) **Department of Plant Molecular Biology and Physiology** (Prof. Christiane Gatz). Regulation of gene expression in response to xenobiotic stress.

1.9 University of Heidelberg

- (a) **Department of Plant Cell Biology** (Prof. David G. Robinson). Intracellular protein transfer in plant cells (e.g. vesicle-mediated).
- (b) **Department of Plant Molecular Physiology** (Prof. Thomas Rausch). Molecular mechanisms by which crop plants counter the effects of abiotic and biotic stress exposure, development of genetic markers for breeding stress-resistant crop plants.

1.10 University Hohenheim

Department of Plant Production and Agro Ecology in the Tropics and Subtropics (Prof. Joachim Sauerborn, Prof. Folkard Asch, Prof. Georg Cadisch). Plant production in the tropics and subtropics, crop water stress management, development of sustainable agricultural production systems, generation of fungal disease-resistant crops.

1.11 University of Potsdam

- (a) **Department of Molecular Biology** (Prof. Bernd Mueller-Roeber). Plant genome research, biomolecular technologies.
- (b) **Department of Plant Physiology** (Prof. Martin Steup). Various aspects of starch metabolism.

1.12 University of Rostock

- (a) **Department of Biochemistry** (Prof. Birgit Piechulla). Floral scent synthesis and emission, molecular basis of chronobiology of plants.
- (b) **Department of Plant Physiology** (Prof. Hermann Bauwe). Investigation of the process of photorespiration at the molecular level.

German companies invest large sums in plant biotechnology. BASF Plant, among other projects, carries out research on the development of drought-tolerant crops, protection of plants against the fungus *Phytophthora*, generation of canola traits with healthy long-chain omega-3 fatty acids and starch for industrial use in potato (AMFLORA). Bayer Crop Science is working on the generation of genetically modified rice, cotton, maize, canola and soybean. KWS Saat AG has developed herbicide-resistant sugar beet, and is involved in the generation of large-size maize plants for biogas production. Unfortunately much of the research and production of the above companies is being done outside Germany due to the hostility of the public in Germany towards GM plants.

2 Licensing of GM crops in Europe for human consumption and fodder and for cultivation

The licensing for all countries of the European Union is carried out by the European Council. After an assessment of the safety of the environment and consumption by the European Food Safety Authority, the assessment has to be approved by a qualified majority vote of the European Council for Agriculture and Fisheries. The different European Councils each represent 27 member countries. The bigger the country's population, the more votes it has, but the number is weighted in favour of the less populous countries. A qualified majority is reached if a majority of member states approves, and there is a minimum of 74% of the votes and the votes in favour represent at least 62% of the total population of the European Union.

Obviously, the hurdle for any agreement is very high. This explains how until now only relatively few products from GM crops have been admitted in the European Union for *human consumption or fodder* as listed below. It should be noted that this licensing does not include cultivation in Europe.

3 GM crop products admitted in Europe

- **Maize:** 11 traits, herbicide and insect resistance (Syngenta, Monsanto, Pioneer)
- **Canola:** 4 traits, herbicide resistance, male sterility (Bayer Crop Science, Monsanto)
- **Soybeans:** 2 traits, herbicide resistance (Bayer Crop Science, Monsanto)
- **Sugar beet:** 1 trait, herbicide resistance (KWS Saat, Monsanto)
- **Cotton:** 6 traits, herbicide and insect resistance (Monsanto, Bayer Crop Science)
- **Carnation flowers:** 4 traits, altered colour of flowers, durability (Florigene Ltd)

In Europe the rule is that products from GM crops have to be labelled. If food or fodder contains more than 0.9% of a GM product, or if 0.9% of a product derived from GM material was involved in producing it, then the label must say so. This applies to food in the supermarket as well as food served in restaurants. It has the effect that GM products are not used in restaurants as they would have to be marked on the menu card. The products are practically unsaleable in supermarkets. If labelled products were to appear on the shelves, activists from Greenpeace and other GM opponents would turn up and make such a fuss that the shopkeepers would not put up with it. Thus, in reality the consumer has no choice.

When licensed GM products are used as fodder, the resulting animal products do not have to be labelled according to the European rules. Since animal farmers are largely dependent on imported soybean and maize as fodder, GM products are frequently fed to the animals. This has raised protests of GM opponents in Germany with the result that in Germany the label "Without Gene Technology" has been recently created for animal products not containing GM fodder. It remains to be seen to what extent this label will actually appear on products on the shelves of supermarkets.

In several European countries, due to misinformation campaigns of GM opponents such as Greenpeace, large parts of the public are against plant gene technology, and as

THE SITUATION CONCERNING GM CROP PLANTS IN GERMANY

Prof. Hans-Walter Heldt

the leading politicians of these countries follow this sentiment, it is often very difficult to obtain a qualified majority for the admission of a GM trait in the European Council. To give an example: the safety of maize MON 88017 as food or fodder was approved by the European Food Safety Authority, but it failed a qualified majority for its licensing in the European Council of Agriculture. This had severe consequences: shiploads of shredded soybean had to be returned since they contained traces far below 0.1% of the maize Mon 88017 as contaminant. Since the Council has until now not agreed on threshold values for permissible contaminations, due to the sensitivities of modern analysis techniques, even traces of dust from unlicensed GM traits are enough for a rejection. This creates great difficulties in the fodder industry.

Licensing for the *cultivation* of GM crops is extremely difficult. In 2003, BASF generated, in cooperation with the Max Planck Institute in Potsdam, a potato with uniform starch (amylopectin) for industrial use (AMFLORA). Numerous studies gave convincing evidence that growing of AMFLORA was safe for the environment and it was approved by the European Food Safety Authority as safe for human consumption in case these potatoes were eaten by mistake. The commercial cultivation of the potato was planned for 2007. Until now the European Commission has still not given its approval. So far only a single GM trait, namely the maize MON 810 containing a *Bt* protein for protection against the corn borer, has been admitted in Europe, and for about ten years has been grown successfully in Spain and also in a very few places in Germany. There is a provision that member governments are allowed to ban the cultivation of a GM crop licensed in Europe if there is an immediate danger. For the sake of popularity, governments of some member states, including Germany, used this provision to ban the cultivation of MON 810 based on dubious publications which have been debunked by experts.

In a country such as Germany, the problem with GM products is that the consumer derives no benefit from consuming them, since food prices are low anyway. Also there is no pressing need for the large majority of German farmers to cultivate the insect- and

herbicide-resistant crop plants currently available. On the other hand, people are very conscious about the quality of their food, and many are willing to pay much higher prices for food if it is labelled “organic” despite the fact that it has never been proved that “organic” food is healthier than conventional food. Organisations of GM opponents exploit this sentiment to seek donations by worrying the public with unfounded allegations that the consumption of GM food is a health hazard. Professionally organised campaigns, in particular by Greenpeace, have been very successful in convincing the majority of the public of this, and the politicians, when making decisions, just follow this sentiment.

4 Activities of German Academies in conjunction with the InterAcademy Panel (IAP) to counteract the misleading campaigns by GM opponent organisations

The Union of German Academies of Sciences and Humanities adopted a programme funded by the IAP on the prospects of GM crops for sustaining the food supply for the growing populations of developing countries (IAP GMO Initiative on Genetically Modified Plants). The programme aimed at counteracting the false arguments of environmental activists against Green Biotechnology by forming a panel of experts to collect scientifically based arguments. Texts were to be produced and presented in a simple manner in order to attract the attention of decision-makers and the media. A Commission of Green Biotechnology of the Union of German Academies produced two draft reports and a statement which were the basis for extensive discussions at an International Workshop on GM Crops held in Berlin in May 2006. The panel of international experts at this workshop (the participant from South Africa was Prof. Jocelyn Webster from AfricaBIO) passed, by subsequent correspondence, the reports *Are there hazards for the consumer from eating GM food?* and *GM insect-resistant crops with regard to developing countries*, which were both adopted as official documents of the IAP. Moreover, a statement on GM crops in developing countries was passed. A summary of the findings of these documents, being relevant to the present workshop, is therefore given below.

4.1 Commission of Green Biotechnology of the Union of German Academies and an International Workshop on GM Crops held in Berlin in May 2006

(a) Are there health hazards for the consumer from eating genetically modified food?

Based on the published scientific literature, this report examines the potential hazards and risks of consuming genetically modified (GM) plant products. Toxicity, carcinogenicity and food allergenicity, and the possible effects of consuming foreign DNA (including antibiotic-resistant genes) are all taken into account. The report concludes that food derived from GM plants approved by the EU and the US poses no risks greater than those from the corresponding “conventional” food. On the contrary, in some cases food from GM plants appears to be superior with respect to health.

Probably no discovery in plant sciences has had, in so short a time, such far-reaching consequences on agriculture as the method reported in 1983 for the genetic modification of plants using gene technology. In 2005, such genetically modified varieties comprised 60% of global soybean cultivation, 14% of maize, 28% of cotton and 18% of rape seed; between 2003 and 2005 the overall increase of the area worldwide given over to GM crops was 33%. This clearly demonstrates that the application of gene technology in agriculture has been economically very successful.

Genetic modifications to crop plants have so far focused primarily on the production of herbicide-tolerant varieties for minimising harvest losses due to weeds, and the generation of insect-resistant varieties to decrease losses from insect damage. More recent developments are directed at protection against viral and fungal infections, the enhancement of tolerance towards drought and salinity, the formation of male sterile plants for the generation of productive hybrids, and the improvement of the

nutritional quality of crop plants, for example by modifying the fatty acid composition in oil seeds.

The campaigns of opponents of agricultural biotechnology have deliberately provoked widespread public anxiety by asserting that food from GMOs is a health hazard. “Organic” products are advertised as free from GMOs, thus claiming that they are especially healthy. The slightest trace of GMOs in “organic” products as a result of cross-pollination is termed “genetic pollution”; in some countries it may justify a claim for damages.

(b) Does the consumption of food from GM plants really involve a health hazard for the consumer?

This report bases its findings on reliable and attributed data. Thus, in marked contrast to the claims made by opponents of these foods, all the information used is derived from publications in peer-reviewed scientific journals in which contributions are reviewed anonymously by experts in the field. The interests of the consumer are protected by very rigorous licensing procedures based on scientifically robust protocols as laid down by national and international organisations, including the Food and Agricultural Organisation of the United Nations (FAO), the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and the EU. These regulations are much stricter than those required for conventionally grown food *which normally receive no formal testing whatsoever from a health perspective*. Moreover, in the EU it is now obligatory that all food ingredients from GM plants are so labelled if they exceed a threshold content of 0.9% for each ingredient.

In principle, no absolute guarantee can ever be offered for the safety of any food, whether produced conventionally or from GM plants. It is common knowledge that conventionally produced food can be the cause of allergies in predisposed persons; nuts (and particularly peanuts), strawberries, shellfish and wheat are

all familiar examples. Foods of plant origin often contain toxic or carcinogenic substances; nature has provided plants with a large arsenal of defensive substances as protection against damage from feeding insects or from bacterial and fungal infections. Moreover, plant products may be contaminated by fungal toxins, a number of which are strongly carcinogenic; *Fusaria* toxins, which often pollute wheat and maize (even when grown “organically”), are examples. It has been estimated that in industrial countries most of the carcinogenic substances ingested derive from “natural” plant food.

Since absolute safety is never possible, the basis for approving GM food products is the failure – after extensive prescribed testing – to find any adverse indicators. Such tests show that these foods are at least as safe and nutritious as the corresponding products from conventionally produced crops.

This paper addresses in more detail some conceivable risks of consuming GMOs or products containing them. Note has been taken in particular of the very detailed *GM Science Review* of the Royal Society (First Report 2003, Second Report 2004), compiled by a panel of 28 distinguished scientists from various disciplines, a report from the Food Standard Agency (UK) and the Symposium of Green Biotechnology of the Union of the German Academies (2002).

- (c) **Is it possible that some or all GM foods are more toxic or carcinogenic than conventionally grown food, either directly because of the new gene product itself or from unexpected effects of the new inserted gene(s) causing damage to one or more existing genes?**

It must be stressed that in conventional breeding seeds have for long been treated with mutagenic chemicals or high-energy radiation (Y-rays from a cobalt radiation source) to promote random mutations in the hope that some of them may be beneficial. The potential dangers from such mutations, as well as from the natural

mutations which occur continually in all living organisms, are very much higher than those from transgenic plants. Yet no formal testing of their safety as human and animal food is required.

The situation is very different for GM products. It takes at least ten years to develop a new GM trait, during which time a very detailed investigation is undertaken in both laboratory and field trials of the equivalence of the GM plant to its conventional counterpart: they are compared with respect to phenotype, growth and nutritional properties, and chemical composition. Toxicity and carcinogenicity are tested in feeding trials with livestock and rats before the product can be approved for the market. Trials with thousands of animals have shown GM products to be harmless: no scientifically substantiated reports have suggested that the health or productivity of animals is impaired after being fed GM fodder in comparison with the conventional equivalent. Moreover, for some ten years GM food products have been part of the human diet in the US and some other countries. It is estimated that 60–70% of processed foods on US supermarket shelves contain GM components – and they are not labelled. Accordingly, trillions of GM meals have been eaten without any scientifically based report indicating a single health hazard – not one. Furthermore, in spite of a number attempts to do so, there has been no successful consumer claim in any court anywhere for compensation for damage supposedly incurred from the consumption of GM products. This constitutes yet more evidence for the efficacy of the testing procedures and for the safety of the products themselves.

On the other hand, the well-known health risk to consumers from the presence in maize of contaminating fungal toxins is decreased in GM insect-resistant varieties. Conventional maize cobs are often infected with the fungus *Fusarium moniliforme*, resulting in production of the fungal toxin fumonisin. For more than a century, “mouldy corn disease” has been recognised as a hazard for horses, pigs and other livestock, with entire herds dying after being fed corn infected with *Fusaria*.

Sixteen years ago, fumonisin was identified as the cause of the disease. It is known to induce liver cancer in rats. Fumonisin is thus a serious problem; it is so stable that it survives processing and can sometimes be found in cornflakes. In the UK in September 2003, the analysis of 30 samples of maize products in supermarkets led to the removal of ten of them because of excessively high levels of fumonisin content. The contaminated samples with the highest fumonisin contents were those labelled “organic”.

Several studies have found contamination with fumonisin to be greatly decreased in insect-resistant (*Bt*) GM maize, whereas in conventional maize plants the fungi proliferate in cobs injured by insects. In GM maize there is much less insect damage and hence less fumonisin. ***These findings indicate that food from GM maize is more healthy for humans than that from conventionally grown maize.***

(d) Is there a higher risk of food allergy from eating food derived from GM plants than from conventional food?

Estimates suggest that 5–8% of children and of 1–2% adults are allergic to certain conventionally produced foods. Peanuts, for instance, are known to contain 12 allergenic proteins.

While there is no legal requirement for the testing of foods from conventional varieties, strict allergy tests are mandatory for GMO products. The World Health Organisation (WHO) has introduced a protocol for detailed GMO allergenicity tests, both for the plant products concerned and also for their pollen. This protocol is being constantly improved. Tests of this sort on one occasion alerted scientists to the fact that the introduction of a gene from Brazil nut into soybean, in the hope that it would improve quality, would be allergenic for certain people. As a result, further development of that GMO was abandoned by the company involved prior to any commercialisation, demonstrating that the safety regulation system functions well.

Our collective experience to date shows the strict allergenicity tests of GM products to have been very successful: not one allergenic GM product has been introduced onto the market. In conventional breeding, in which genes are altered at random by experimentally-caused mutations or unexpected gene combinations generated by crossings, such tests are not legally required. ***For this reason the risk of GM plants causing allergies can be regarded as substantially lower than that of products from conventional breeding.*** Furthermore, intensive gene technology research is already underway with a view to removing allergens from peanuts, wheat and rice.

- (e) **Has the consumption of transgenic DNA adverse effects on health? Might transgenic DNA survive the digestive tract and become incorporated into human cells, thus altering their genetic information? Does transgenic DNA affect the intestinal microflora and might this constitute a health risk?**

Every day, people on average consume 0.1–1 g DNA in their food. In food from GM plants, transgenic DNA would amount to about 1/100 000–1/1 000 000 parts of this. Scientists are in agreement that digestion of transgenic DNA in no way differs from that of DNA from conventional food. The “new” genes in GM plants derive mostly from other organisms already present in conventional food: viruses and soil bacteria are present in vegetables.

All DNA, transgenic or not, is degraded in the digestive tract although this process may not always be complete. Experiments with animals have shown that very limited quantities of DNA fragments from food may be taken up into blood and body cells, which probably applies equally to humans. Nevertheless, this would have no effect on the genetic composition of human cells: the stable integration of plant DNA into animal genomes has never been observed, with natural barriers apparently in place to prevent any such horizontal gene transfer.

To provide a promoter (gene switch) for the synthesis of the foreign protein in GM plants, a promoter from the cauliflower mosaic virus (CMV) is often used. There

THE SITUATION CONCERNING GM CROP PLANTS IN GERMANY

Prof. Hans-Walter Heldt

has been speculation that the DNA sequence of this virus promoter might be incorporated from undigested plant material into the genome of human cells, there to provoke the development of tumours. No evidence has been provided for this theory which ignores the fact that the viral promoter has the properties of a plant DNA with its uptake into the human genome prevented by the natural barriers mentioned above.

However, there is another significant detail negating this speculation: for centuries, cabbage and cauliflower have been part of the human diet. Half of all cauliflower and 10% of cabbage are infected with the virus, so people have been eating cauliflower mosaic virus for centuries or perhaps for millennia. There have never been adverse health reports from the consumption of these naturally “contaminated” vegetables.

Experimental research has demonstrated that natural barriers make the horizontal gene transfer of plant DNA extremely unlikely, whether from the roots of plants into soil bacteria or from an animal digestive tract into intestinal bacteria. This argues strongly against unsupported assertions that recombinant DNA from a transgenic plant might be spread by bacteria.

The situation is different in the case of recombinant DNA originally derived from a bacterial source. Those DNA sequences can indeed be inserted into bacterial genomes by homologous recombination. A number of approved GM plants do contain bacterial genes conferring resistance to antibiotics; they are used as selection markers in the procedure of gene transfer. The possibility exists of these resistance genes being transferred to intestinal bacteria. In most cases, the gene employed confers resistance to the antibiotics kanamycin and neomycin. Because of their high toxicity, these antibiotics are very seldom used in human medicine, and then exclusively for external applications only. Moreover, the resistance genes to these two antibiotics are already present in large amounts in an average soil sample.

Occasionally, bacterial ampicillin-resistant genes have been used as selection markers for the generation of GM plants. Since ampicillin is used medically for severe infections such as meningitis, there has been speculation that the consumption of products from the corresponding GM plants may lead to a loss of therapeutic effectiveness due to the spread of ampicillin resistance via intestinal bacteria. Plausible though this scenario at first sight appears to be, in normal healthy persons up to 27% of the *Escherichia coli* bacteria in the intestine *already contain this ampicillin-resistant gene*. The practice of adding antibiotics to cattle fodder means that the droppings of 75% of cattle and pigs in Germany were found to contain *Escherichia coli* bearing the ampicillin resistance gene. In New Zealand, some 20% of soil bacteria were found to contain the ampicillin marker even though GM plants had never been grown there. ***This clearly shows that the presence of these antibiotic resistance markers in GM plants, even if they were able to survive passage through the digestive tract, represent no risk to human health.*** However, since it seems to be impossible to convey to the general public the difference between various antibiotics and the corresponding resistance genes, they are no longer used as selection markers or are later excised and so not present in GM plants.

In summary, the evidence suggests it to be most unlikely that the consumption of the well-characterised transgenic DNA from approved GMO food presents any recognisable health risk.

5 Conclusion

This paper noted at the outset that the consumption of any foodstuff present various degrees of risks to health. Estimating the importance of risks specifically related to GM food products can be made only by comparison with the corresponding conventional products. The former offer the advantage of having been exceptionally thoroughly tested with respect to health risks, but the latter have not been tested at all. In estimating the health risks, it is also relevant to remember that, since 1996, hundreds of millions of people in

the Americas and elsewhere have regularly been consuming GM products as part of their normal diets without any proven evidence of adverse health effects. It might be argued that this is only evidence for the absence of strong and easily observed adverse effects, and that milder or long-term damage cannot be excluded. While long-term effects are not expected, which is equally true for all food; *how many of our ailments in later life derive from decades of eating particular foods?* For the most part, we do not know.

The present regulations for the approval of GM plants and their product have established a framework which:

- affords an effective safety evaluation on the basis of scientific data before marketing
- requires GM products to be labelled by law, so offering the consumer informed choice
- specifies monitoring procedures which will reveal unexpected effects after the introduction of GM products onto the market
- permits the regulatory authorities to evaluate these data at any time.

This report shows that, because of the rigour with which they must be tested and the controls to which they are subject, it is extremely unlikely that GMO products approved for market in the European Union and other countries present a greater health risk than the corresponding products from conventional sources.

6 Genetically modified insect-resistant crops with regard to developing countries

Using existing literature, this report summarises ecological and economical aspects of the cultivation of genetically modified insect-resistant varieties of maize, rice and cotton. It shows that the growth of these crops by smallholder farmers in developing countries can be beneficial for their earnings, their health and also for the ecosystem.

Agriculture in general leads to ecological disturbances as wild plant communities are replaced by monocultures of crop plants. In order to obtain sufficiently high yields, fertilisers are used and weeds combated by herbicides and tilling. Insect attack and fungal infections have to be minimised. These are both achieved conventionally by the application of pesticides which have adverse effects on the agricultural ecosystems. An alternative approach is to use genetically modified (GM) crops resistant to pests. It is just over ten years since the first GM crops were introduced, yet they are very popular with farmers. In 2005 it was estimated that approved GM crops were grown globally on 90 million ha, about 5% of all arable land; the increase between 2003 and 2005 alone was 33%. Some 90% of those benefiting were resource-poor farmers from developing countries whose increased incomes from biotech crops contributed to the alleviation of their poverty. The Nuffield Council of Bioethics stated in 1999 that "GM crops had a considerable potential to improve food security and the effectiveness for the agriculture in developing countries".

Whether the growth of GM crops is more economically rewarding and less damaging to the environment than the cultivation of their conventional counterparts with conventional protection by agrochemicals needs to be considered on a case-by-case basis. The present report deals with three important crops grown in developing countries: maize, rice and cotton, all with genetically engineered resistance against feeding insects. This has been achieved by the expression within the crop plants of proteins (*Bt* proteins) derived from the bacterium *Bacillus thuringiensis*. Over 200 different *Bt* proteins toxic to selected insects have been identified in various strains of this bacterium. For 40 years *Bt* proteins have had a safe history as biopesticide preparations and are approved for organic farming. Rats fed with very high doses of *Bt* proteins showed no detectable toxic effects, whereas synthetic pesticides, such as organophosphates and chlorinated biphenyls, are toxic. The high price of *Bt* preparations, however, makes them expensive for use on commodity crops and they represent less than 2% of pesticides sold worldwide. Synthetic pesticides kill a very broad spectrum of insects, i.e. the target pests, as well as beneficial insects, whereas *Bt* crops kill primarily those insects attacking the crops.

Seeds incorporating Bt technology are particularly suitable for smallholder farmers, because they do not require the equipment and knowledge necessary for pesticide applications, and reduce farmers' exposure to insecticides, particularly for those using hand sprayers.

6.1 Maize

Worldwide, maize is the leading staple in terms of tonnage, with two-thirds of the global hectareage grown in developing countries. It is noteworthy that the yields of maize harvested per hectare in the Corn Belt of the US can be 20-fold higher than that of resource-poor subsistence farmers in developing countries. Although most maize is used as animal feed, it is a staple food in many countries, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. For example, the consumption of maize in Kenya has been reported to be 400 g per person per day. In such countries it is imperative for food security that maize harvest yields are improved. Decreasing the harvest losses caused by insect pests is a major factor in yield improvement and stability.

On a global basis, the most important insect pests of maize are the larvae of various moths (corn borers). In temperate areas of America, and also more recently in Europe, rootworm larvae which damage roots have emerged as serious maize pests, with the yield losses in fields infested with rootworms as high as 50%. While rootworms can be combated by spraying organophosphates onto the soil, stem borers are difficult to control by pesticide spraying as the caterpillars penetrate into the plant. The application of pesticides must thus target the caterpillars during the very short time between their emerging from the egg and entering the maize plant. *Bt* maize, by contrast, has the advantage of the caterpillars being targeted when they feed on the plant and are so prevented from entering the stem. Although combating some pests will increase the population of others, the global deployment of *Bt* genes to control maize pests has been estimated to have the potential of eliminating 40–50% of the insecticides currently in use.

During the past ten years, hundreds of million people have consumed products from GM maize and it has been widely used as animal feed. Yet, as discussed in an earlier report

of our commission (“Are there health hazards for the consumer from eating genetically modified food?”), there is no evidence of the consumption of GM maize or its products being harmful to health. Moreover, there is clear evidence that GM maize offers the advantage of being much less subject to contamination by mycotoxins such as fumonisin and aflatoxin, toxins produced by fungi that infest maize cobs and cause serious illnesses in man and animals. The invading fungi are opportunistic, primarily infecting kernels damaged by caterpillars. Contamination by these powerful toxins can be so high that harvest products have to be withdrawn from the market. For subsistence farmers, e.g. in parts of Africa, the toxins cause serious health problems, particularly for children. The significantly lower mycotoxin contamination of GM maize is due to the fact that the cobs have fewer injuries. Thus, *Bt* maize offers a critically important advantage for consumers concerned about food safety.

So far, *Bt* maize seeds have been distributed as hybrid varieties giving high yields, but the harvested grains cannot be used as farmer-saved seed. Critics of biotechnology often offer this as a reason why, in developing countries, *Bt* seeds are not suitable for smallholder farmers who mostly use farmer-saved seeds. However, hybrids are the predominant seed types in many developing countries. In China, the largest producer of maize after the US, where maize is grown by 105 million farmers with an average holding of 0.23 ha per farm, 84% have adopted hybrid seeds since they offer a higher return. For areas such as Central America and West Central Africa, where most of the maize is grown by subsistence farmers with farmer-saved seeds, non-profit organisations are called upon to introduce *Bt* genes into local varieties so that these farmers may also profit from *Bt* technology.

6.2 Rice

Worldwide, rice is the principal food for nearly two billion people, with the main producers being China, India and Indonesia. In these countries, rice is mostly grown by about 250 million smallholder farmers. Again, major insect pests are caterpillars such as stem borers and leaf-folders. At present, the productivity of rice plantations depends heavily on

chemical inputs. The introduction of conventional pesticides about 30 years ago had a devastating impact on insect diversity, drastically reducing the populations of fish and crabs in the rice fields. Many companies and institutions in the world, e.g. in Iran and China, are developing genetically modified insect-resistant rice. *Bt* rice cultivars have already been field-tested in Iran, China and Costa Rica, to be fully commercialised in due course. Field studies indicate that the introduction of *Bt* rice has the potential for decreasing the amount of pesticides sprayed on the fields by more than 50% together with considerable increases in harvest yield.

6.3 Cotton

Cotton is grown in developing countries, mainly by smallholder farmers. The harvest is particularly threatened by insect pests such as the cotton bollworm and caterpillars feeding within the fruit where the cotton fibres are produced. Without treatment, these pests can destroy most of the harvest. Conventionally, they are combated by spraying organophosphate or pyrethroid pesticides. More pesticides are applied per hectare of cotton than to any other crop with the number of sprayings necessary per season varying from 2 to 12, but sometimes as high as 30. Despite major expenditure on pesticides, cotton cultivation has totally collapsed in various regions of the world because of extremely high infestation levels.

For the past nine years, genetically modified cultivars containing a *Bt* protein toxic to the cotton bollworm have been available. Their commercial introduction has been very successful: by 2005, *Bt* cotton was grown on 28% of the global hectareage of cotton, with an increase of 33% in the last year. Whereas the *Bt* cotton technology was originally commercialised by a single company in the US, it is now also distributed by a range of companies and institutions in China, India and elsewhere. In China in 2005, about 65% of the cotton was *Bt* cultivars, and in South Africa as much as 85%.

7 Ecological aspects

Experience with traditional crops shows that, through hybridisation, they can give rise to weeds requiring special agricultural practices for their elimination. It is well established that gene flow occurs between both GM cultivars and non-GM crops and their wild relatives. Cultivars of maize, rice and cotton sown as crops do not have sufficient biological fitness to survive in natural habitats; in most cases the incorporation of a few additional genes is unlikely to alter the fitness of a cultivar in a natural ecosystem. Maize has wild relatives only in Mexico and Central America, whereas the wild relatives of cotton and rice are more widespread. So far, no transgenes have been observed to escape from maize or cotton to a wild relative, there permanently to initiate a selective advantage. In the wild, insect resistance could offer such a selective advantage, but insect resistance mediated by a single gene is unlikely to persist. In the case of *Bt* rice, particularly with modern rice cultivars designed for dry-land agriculture, special attention must be paid to the question of the possibility of gene flow to weedy wild rice relatives. It is surely relevant for such scenarios that, for more than 30 years, a very large number of rice cultivars have been grown into which single genes conferring resistance to certain insects have been introduced by conventional breeding. There are no known cases in which wild or weedy rice populations have become more competitive as a result of hybridisation with these cultivars.

Some years ago it was reported in a laboratory experiment that feeding pollen to *Bt* maize caused considerable toxicity to Monarch butterflies and that survival of the species was threatened by this GM crop. The report provoked so much public anxiety that the EU placed a moratorium lasting several years on the approval of GM crops. Extensive field studies, subsequently carried out by numerous investigators, clearly demonstrated that the cultivation of *Bt* maize has no measurable impact on Monarch butterflies. A large number of studies on *Bt* maize, rice and cotton, performed in several countries, have all shown that the populations of many non-target insects are higher in fields of *Bt* cultivars than in fields of conventional crops regularly receiving applications of broad-spectrum pesticide.

There has been concern that *Bt* proteins from the litter of plants and root exudates persist in the soil and have an impact on its fauna. Taking into account that agricultural soils are in any case highly modified by conventional cultivation, and particularly by tilling and the application of fertilisers and pesticides, the impact of *Bt* crops on the fauna in the soil has been shown in extensive studies, including bioassays, to be negligible.

As mentioned earlier, *Bt* proteins are toxic only to selective insect pests. Combating those pests that are insensitive to the *Bt* toxin means that in many cases the cultivation of *Bt* cultivars still requires the application of pesticides, although the number of pesticide sprays required is mostly much lower than with conventional cultivars. Decreases in pesticide applications are beneficial not only to the environment but also to farm labourers. Spraying chemical pesticides is a considerable health hazard, especially if hand sprayers are used. A survey in China revealed there were formerly on average 54 000 poisoning incidents annually, including 490 deaths due to the use of pesticides, and that the introduction of *Bt* cotton cultivars reduced this health risk substantially. ***These facts provide overwhelming support for the beneficial effect of *Bt* crop cultivation, both for the environment and for the health of farm labourers.***

8 Economic aspects

Since the seeds of *Bt* cultivars are more expensive than their conventional counterparts, a farmer will have to decide whether infestation by pests is high enough to make the purchase of GM seeds profitable. Although the returns for using *Bt* technology can result in reduced labour and pesticide costs, as well as increased harvest yields, there remain situations in which the cost of *Bt* seeds is not justified.

The fact that in 2003 30% of maize and 46% of cotton in the US were planted as *Bt* cultivars clearly demonstrates that *Bt* technology can indeed be profitable for farmers. The fact also that only 30% and 46% was planted suggests that there are circumstances in which the additional cost of the seeds is not justified. The decision of whether or not to use such seeds was made by individual American farmers on commercial grounds.

This also applies to many developing countries. In China, where cotton is grown by about 11 million farmers with an average holding of 0.4 ha, about two-thirds of these farmers have already adopted *Bt* cotton. *Bt* technology is reported as being profitable because it leads in many cases both to a substantial decrease in pesticide use and to a yield increase.

In India, where cotton contributes 30% of the national agricultural gross domestic production and is grown mainly by smallholder farmers, the infestation of cotton fields by insect pests is very high and the average yield per area is only about half of the world average. In India, only three years after the commercial release of *Bt* cotton, about one million farmers have decided to grow it. As reported, most, although not all of the farmers, made substantial profits as a result. Future success depends on the introduction of locally adapted varieties. In both China and India the distribution of *Bt* technology is no longer restricted to multinational companies but increasingly involves national companies and institutions, resulting in more competitive pricing.

These examples show clearly that Bt technology can indeed be valuable in economic terms to smallholder farmers with relatively small fields in developing countries, as well as to the large farms in developed countries.

There is, however, the possibility that pests may become resistant to *Bt* toxins as has happened in the past with the extensive use of organophosphates and pyrethroids. Although the evolution of resistant pests will not cause major ecological problems, it might seriously affect the economy of farmers and seed companies. In order to prevent such resistance, countries, such as the US, have adopted insect-resistant management programmes which include providing refuges of non-GM crops or other hosts. This ensures that susceptible insects are available in sufficient numbers to mate with any resistant survivors from *Bt* fields, so preventing the build-up of resistant insect populations. Thus far this system has worked well; almost all farmers obey the rules and several recent studies have failed to find any resistance. Smallholder farmers do not have such problems, because they usually have several small fields with diverse crops.

World agriculture must continue to fulfil the food and fibre needs of the growing human population, as well as rectify the existing widespread malnutrition. *To achieve this aim, pest control will have to rely on integrated pest-management practices which include crop rotation, biological control, Bt technology and the sparing use of pesticides. Bt technology has shown itself to be a valuable contribution to knowledge-based agriculture.*

9 Statement on genetically modified crops

Molecular engineering of crops has brought revolutionary advances in agriculture. In 2005, just ten years from their introduction, many GM crop varieties have been grown on about 5% of all global arable crop land in 21 countries by 8.5 million farmers, 90% of whom are resource poor. Some developing countries have used GM varieties and benefited from them for several years and are now in a position to affirm their need and their will to develop more GM farming. We of the academies of sciences worldwide wish to state the following:

Foods from GM crops are more extensively tested than any other. They have been shown to be as safe as, or even sometimes safer, than foods derived from the corresponding conventional plants. Ten years of human consumption and extensive nutritional testing amply support this conclusion (see the report of the IAP GMO initiative: *Are there health hazards for the consumer from eating genetically modified food?*).

Any food, GM or not, may certainly involve some risk – known or not, indexed or not – for human health. There is at present not the least scientific or medical evidence that possible risks posed by GM food are higher than risks posed by non-GM food.

The environmental impact of GM crops is no greater than that of traditional crops. In some cases GM crops have decreased the negative effects of current agricultural practices: for example, insect-resistant cotton requires mostly substantially decreased applications of chemical pesticides, and herbicide-tolerant crops allow no-till practices, cutting energy use and promoting healthy soils. Seed-incorporated technology is particularly suitable for small farmers in developing countries. GM crops resistant to insects, viruses or fungi reduce

farmers' exposure to chemical pesticides, particularly when pesticides are applied with hand sprays. The successful cultivation of GM cotton in China and South Africa shows how former subsistence farmers have significantly increased their income and dramatically improved their quality of life.

In both developed and some developing countries, organic farmers already operate in an environment in which they are subject to influences from neighbouring activities. With proper separation safeguards the presence of genes encoding GM traits in organic products is negligible. Nothing in GM agriculture prevents organic farmers from pursuing their normal practices. Although the rules of organic farming currently exclude the use of GM crops, there is no evidence-based justification for that position.

GM crops can make a major global contribution to the quantity and quality of food. In developing countries, farmers suffer major crop losses caused by insects and diseases. GM technology has already shown that such losses can be significantly reduced, leading directly to improvements in food quality and safety (e.g. insect-resistant maize has appreciably lower levels of highly carcinogenic fungal toxins).

Just as each consumer ought to have the right to accept or reject GM food, so farmers in developing countries and elsewhere should be able to decide for themselves whether to plant conventional, organic or GM crops. They should have the freedom to decide whether it is profitable for them to use the more costly GM seeds instead of conventional seeds. For there to be choice, appropriate regulations including labelling of GM products must be in place, regulations that are proportionate and not excessive. For developing countries to have access to crop biotechnology for their own agriculture, international and non-profit organisations must help governments to formulate appropriate regulations and assist with the training of personnel to administer them.

We wish to debunk the unsupported arguments against genetically modified (GM) crops. On the basis of a wealth of experimental evidence on GM crops – evidence that has accumulated in the past decade from many studies – we affirm that:

THE SITUATION CONCERNING GM CROP PLANTS IN GERMANY

Prof. Hans-Walter Heldt

- Foods from legally approved GM crops are no less safe for humans and animals as conventional crops.
- In the country concerned, legally approved GM crops do not pose greater environmental hazards than conventional crops.
- Small-scale farmers, not just large farms and multinational corporations, can profit from the adoption of GM crops, which in turn could contribute to the alleviation of poverty and hunger in the developing world.
- GM crops pose no unresolvable conflict with either non-GM crops or organic farming.
- GM crops can make major contributions to the quantity and quality of food worldwide.
- Freedom of choice should apply to all farmers and consumers, not just to some of them.
- Decisions about the cultivation of GM crops and the consumption of GM foods must be based on the best available scientific evidence, not on ideological or political beliefs. We should be able to call on governments and non-government environmental organisations to end any unjustified campaigns against GM crops.

Bibliography

Ammann, K. 2005. Effects of biotechnology on biodiversity: herbicide-tolerant and insect-resistant GM crops. *Trends in Biotechnology*, 23: 388-394.

Bates, S.I. *et al.* 2005. Insect-resistance management in GM crops: past, present and future. *Nature Biotechnology*, 23: 57-62.

Cohen, J.I. 2005. Poorer nations turn to publicly developed GM crops. *Nature Biotechnology*, 23: 27-33.

De Block, M., Herrera-Estrella, L., Van Montagu, M., Schell, J. & Zambryski, P. 1984. *EMBO JI*, 3: 1681-1689.

Food Standards Agency (UK). 2003. Report, Sept.

Fox, J. 2003. Resistance to Bt toxin surprisingly absent from pests. *Nature Biotechnology*, 21: 958-959.

Global Status of Commercialised Transgenic Crops. 2003. International Service for the Acquisition of Agri-Biotech Applications, No. 30/2003.

GM Science Review. 2003, 2004. An open review of the science relevant to GM crops and food based on the interest and concern of the public. London: The Royal Society, 1st Report, July 2003, 2nd Report, January 2004.

Gressel, J. *et al.* 2004. Major heretofore intractable biotic constraints to African food security that may be amenable to novel biotechnological solutions. *Crop Protection*, 23: 661-689.

Grüne Gentechnik. 2002. Akademie Journal, 1/2002: 1-46.

High, S.M. *et al.* 2004. Achieving successful deployment of *Bt* rice. *Trends in Plant Science*, 9: 286-292.

Hossain, F. *et al.* 2004. Genetically modified cotton and farmers' health in China, *International Journal of Occupational and Environmental Health*, 10: 296-303.

Huang, J. *et al.* 2002. *Bt* cotton benefits, costs, and impacts in China. *AgBioForum* 5: 153-166.

Huang, J. *et al.* 2005. Insect-resistant GM rice in farmers' fields: assessing productivity and health effects in China. *Science*, 308: 688-690.

International Council for Science (Canada). 2003. New genetics, food and agriculture: scientific discoveries – social dilemmas.

International Service for the Acquisition of Agri-Biotech Applications (ISAAA). 2004–2008. Reports on the Global status of GM crops, 32, 2004; 34, 2005; 35, 2006; 37, 2007; 39, 2008.

International Service for the Acquisition of Agri-Biotech Applications (ISAAA). 2001–2003. Global reviews of commercialised transgenic crops: Feature: *Bt cotton*, 26, 2001; GM rice: Will this lead the way for global acceptance of GM crop technology? 28, 2003; Feature: *Bt Maize*, 29, 2003.

Marasas, W.F.O. 2001. Discovery and occurrence of the fumonisins: a historical perspective. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, 109: 239-243.

Minorsky, P.V. 2002. Fumonisin mycotoxins. *Plant Physiology*, 129: 929.

National Centre for Food and Agricultural Policy. 2004. Impacts on US agriculture of biotechnology-derived crops planted in 2003. Washington DC, USA.

Nuffield Council of Bioethics (UK). 1999, 2004. The use of genetically modified crops in developing countries. London.

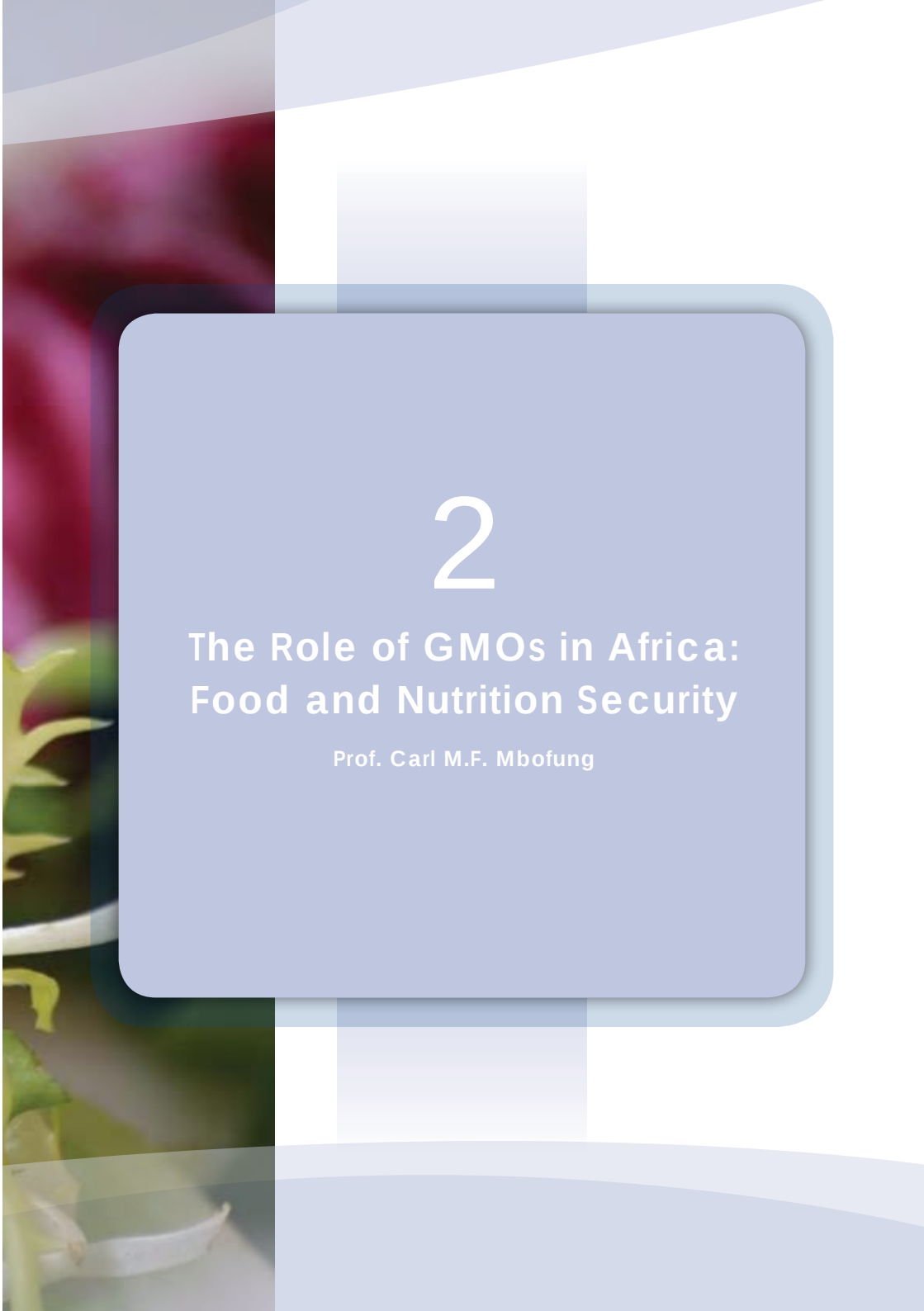
Qaim, M. & Matuschke, I. 2005. Impacts of genetically modified crops in developing countries: a survey. *Quarterly Journal of International Agriculture*, 44: 207-227.

Qaim, M. *et al.* 2006. Adoption of *Bt* cotton and impact variability: insights from India. *Review of Agricultural Economics*, 24: 48-58.

Shelton, A.M. *et al.* 2002. Economic, ecological, food safety, and social consequences of the deployment of *Bt* transgenic plants. *Annual Review of Entomology*, 47: 845-881.

Tabashnik, B.E. *et al.* 2005. Delayed resistance to transgenic cotton in pink bollworm. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Science, USA*: 102(43): 15389-15393.

Union of the German Academies of Science and Humanities Report, InterAcademy Panel Initiative on Genetically Modified Organisms. 2006. Are there hazards for the consumer when eating food from genetically modified plants? Available at: http://www.akademienunion.de/publikationen/literatursammlung_gentechnik/english.html.



2

The Role of GMOs in Africa: Food and Nutrition Security

Prof. Carl M.F. Mbofung

THE ROLE OF GMOS IN AFRICA: FOOD AND NUTRITION SECURITY

PROF. CARL M.F. MBOFUNG

Department of Food Science and Nutrition (ENSAIC), University of Ngaoundere, Cameroon

Developing countries, especially those in sub-Saharan Africa, have for decades been faced with numerous problems which impede their overall growth process. As a consequence, the human development index of these countries has, in most cases, remained at quite a disappointingly low level. Within the community of multilateral organisations and the United Nations, this situation and others have for long been a matter of concern and debate on how to ameliorate these countries' development processes. It was in the course of one of their meetings that the UN, at the end of the 1990s (2001), adopted the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) consisting of eight points that were to serve as indicators of the progress being made towards development in these countries by 2015. Halfway through September 2007, the MDG African Steering Group, consisting of the Secretary-General of the UN, the top executives of the African Development Bank, the European Union (EU), the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the African Union and of the World Bank, met to identify the practical steps needed to achieve the MDG in Africa. At the end of the meeting the following recommendations, aimed at spurring on progress for the attainment of the MDG in African countries by 2015, were adopted:

- (a) The doubling of agricultural production with the objective of reducing poverty, hunger and malnutrition.
- (b) The progressive introduction of commercial farming aimed at accelerating economic growth.
- (c) The improvement of child nutrition and the systematic introduction of school meal programmes.

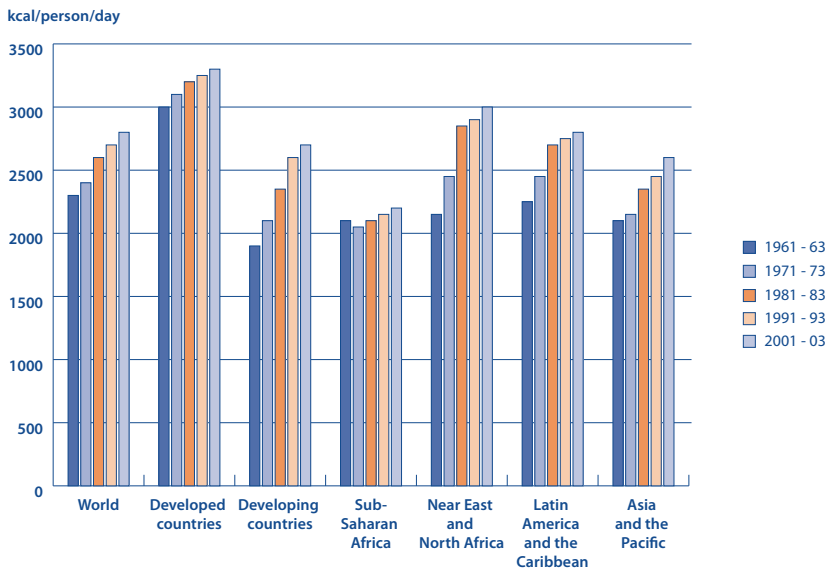
- (d) Micronutrient supplementation to vulnerable groups, especially to children under the age of two, accompanied by systematic deparasitation programmes.

These recommendations all have a direct connection with the issue of food security. By definition, food security is achieved when all people at all times have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life. In the light of this definition food security is a major problem for the developing countries of sub-Saharan Africa. This is more so when one considers the factors that influence food production. In almost all cases low food production has constantly been ascribed to such factors as climate (drought or inadequate rainfall), soil fertility, soil erosion and desertification; poor farming practices; crop losses due to weed and insect attack; inappropriate post-harvest technology; poor farm inputs and natural disasters. In addition to these factors, the situation is increasingly being made worse by the global warming phenomenon, the decrease in farm labour due to rapid rural urban migration, widespread poverty and conflicts. The recent world food crises, together with the HIV/AIDS pandemic, only aggravate the situation, and the attainment of the MDG related to food and nutrition by 2015 is looking more like a myth for most African countries.

In situations of food insecurity, problems of food supply, hunger, undernutrition and eventually malnutrition tend to exist in varying proportions. Available statistics on hunger, undernutrition and malnutrition in developing countries in general and in Africa in particular, are not only alarming but are disturbing indicators of the poor state of the food and nutrition situation. These indicators reveal the magnitude of the challenges that the governments of these countries have to overcome to improve human life.

Food supply situation: *Per capita* food consumption figures for sub-Saharan Africa (Figure 2.1) have not only been the lowest in the world but have remained relatively stagnant for more than four decades (1961–2003), suggesting a very poor food security situation. Based on the International Model for Policy Analysis of Agricultural Commodities and Trade

(IMPACT) for food supply, demand, net trade and malnutrition under the Business as Usual (BAU) scenario, projected crop production data indicate that annual cereal production rates in sub-Saharan Africa will decrease from the average rate of 3.6% achieved between 1982–1997 to 2.7% between 1997–2025 (Rosegrant *et al.*, 2004). Equally, a decrease from 4.3% to 2.7% for the same periods will be experienced in the case of root and tuber production.



Source: FAO (2007)

Figure 2.1: Per capita food consumption between 1961 and 2003

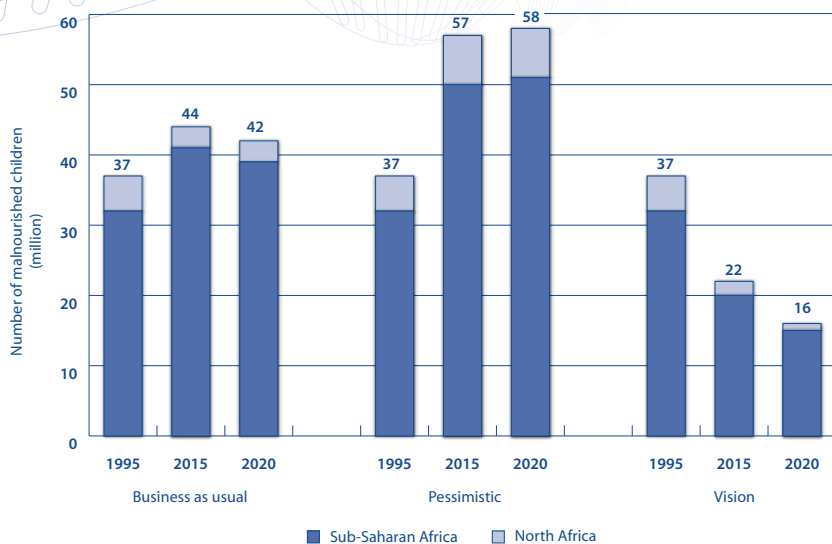
In this scenario, the incidence of hunger and the high prevalence of undernutrition and malnutrition are bound to be common. At the global level, estimates for the 1999–2001 period put hunger and malnutrition as affecting 842 million people, with 798 million living in developing countries. Sub-Saharan Africa alone accounted for 198 million.

Recent global statistics for malnutrition show that 60% of the almost 11 million deaths occurring in children under the age of five in developing countries are associated with nutritional problems (UNICEF, 2007). In Africa, the prevalence of malnutrition varies from

5% to 34%. About one in every three children under the age of five experiences chronic growth retardation with the attendant consequences of poor brain development and poor health. These figures, which reflect the degree of food insecurity on the continent, are in some cases exacerbated by widespread poverty and the occurrence of HIV/AIDS. Also common is the occurrence of micronutrient deficiencies. Of particular concern in this case is the high incidence of iron deficiency anaemia (30–50% in pregnant and lactating women; 20–30% in children under the age of five) and vitamin A and iodine deficiency with their attendant effects on metabolism and growth. At country level, to use Cameroon as an example, the prevalence of these micronutrient deficiencies show that:

- (a) Pregnant and lactating women and children under the age of five are the main groups at risk of vitamin A deficiency. Earlier studies have shown the prevalence of this avitaminosis to be around 40% for under-five-year-olds, with the northern parts of the country registering the highest (62.5%) rates.
- (b) Anaemia due to iron and other vitamin deficiencies is equally very widespread among the vulnerable groups, and the prevalence, which varies according to ecological zones, is as high as 53% for pregnant women and 75% for children.
- (c) Iodine deficiency is also common although relatively low in intensity. The prevalence ranges from 5.3% for children to 7% for women. Over 424 000 new-born babies suffer from mental retardation because of iodine deficiency during the intrauterine period.

This malnutrition is projected to worsen in time if deliberate and appropriate action is not taken. According to the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI, 2004), the malnutrition figures of 37 million African children will increase by 13.5% to a whopping 42 million by 2020 (Figure 2.2). If current efforts are not improved upon, the figures will even be as high as 58 million. These trends equally predict that sub-Saharan Africa will be far from attaining the MDG for undernutrition in 2015 (21.1% as against 17.9%) as shown in Table 2.1.



Source: IFPRI IMPACT simulations

Figure 2.2: Malnutrition trends for African children between 1995 and 2002

Table 2.1: Projected undernutrition figures

Region	Undernourished population (millions)			Prevalence of undernutrition (% of population)		
	1990-1992	2015	WFS Objectives	1990-1992	2015	MDG Objectives
Developing countries	823	582	412	20.3	10.1	10.2
Sub-Saharan Africa	170	179	85	35.7	21.1	17.9
Middle East and N. Africa	24	36	12	7.6	7.0	3.9
Latin America & Caribbean	60	41	30	13.4	6.6	6.7
South Asia	291	203	146	25.9	12.1	13.0
East Asia	277	123	139	16.5	5.8	8.3

The seriousness of this problem lies in the fact that, if unattended to, its consequences will be carried over from parent to offspring in a vicious cycle (Figure 2.3) with the magnitude of the problem growing with each passing cycle. The overall impact will be a reduction in the biological potential of children and in the development process of the country.

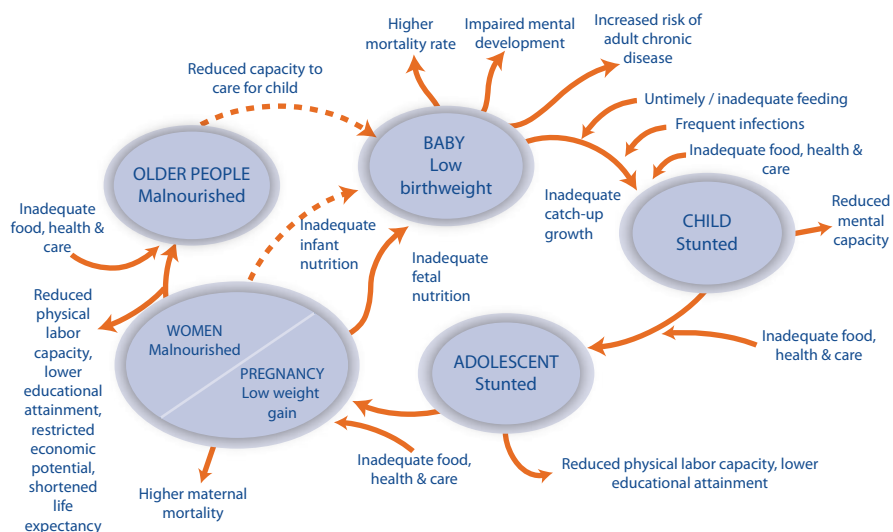


Figure 2.3: Vicious cycle of the burden of malnutrition

Source: Benson, 2004.

The food and nutrition picture of sub-Saharan Africa in Figure 2.3 calls for reflections on and suggestions for a way forward to contribute to the solution to these problems. Generally, although nutritional status is attributed not only to food security (Figure 2.4), it does play a predominant role. Given the several constraining factors that are known to influence food production in Africa, the present paper takes a look at the role that recent genetically modified organism (GMO) technology can play in contributing to the enhancement of the food and nutritional status of African countries.

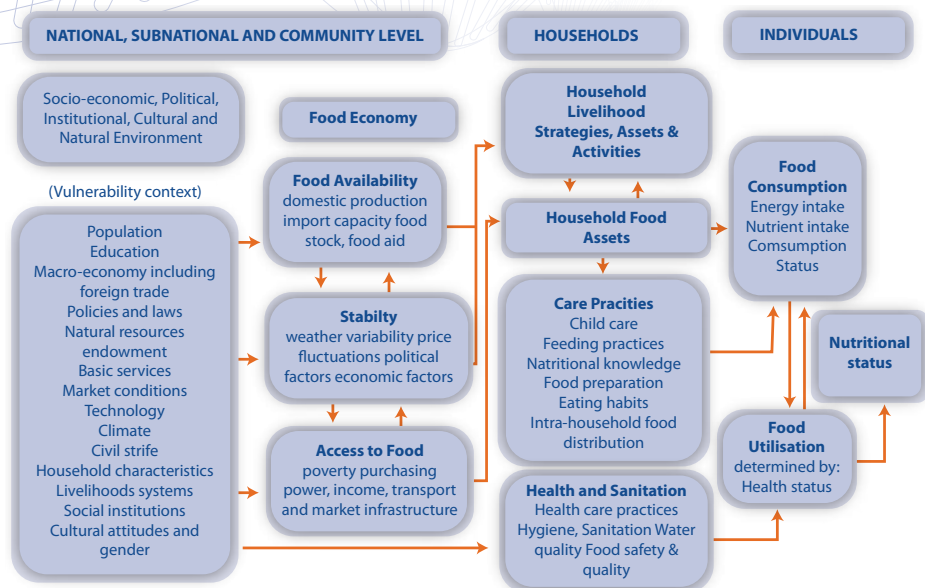


Figure 2.4: Factors influencing nutritional status

Possible role of GMO: For the past 20 years the science of biotechnology has made significant and important advances in recombinant DNA engineering, making it possible to produce transgenic food crops of better quality. In this biotechnological process, genetic material of a given crop is manipulated and modified using a technique known as recombinant DNA technology. This modification process is usually aimed at enhancing desired traits such as increased resistance to herbicides, pests, specific diseases, harsh environmental conditions such as cold spells, heat waves and drought, or improved shelf life or nutritional content. Compared to conventional plant breeding methods, GM technology is less time-consuming and more accurate in acquiring the desired objectives. The product obtained is known as a genetically modified organism (GMO) or a GM food. Great strides have been made in this area which have given rise to a wide range of improved food crops which are now increasingly being cultivated at industrial level in most developed countries and to a lesser extent in some developing countries. In 2006, for example, GMO crops

in the US were grown over an area of over 135 million acres, with the total global area exceeding 250 million acres. The current list of GM foods includes corn, potato, pineapple, cocoa bean, yellow squash, sweet pepper, sugar cane, banana, soybean, etc. In South Africa this technology has been used to produce transgenic maize, cotton and soybeans that have traits for insect resistance and herbicide tolerance.

Increasing numbers of research results on GMO are regarded as a reason for the adoption of GMOs in the fight against food insecurity in Africa. These milestone research results show the possibility of increasing crop yields, improving the storage potential of harvested crops, improving the protein content of starchy foods, biofortification of local foods, improving the functional food potential of local foods, etc.

Contrary to the expectations of opponents of GM foods, the results of modern comprehensive profiling of crop composition have shown a very close similarity between GM foods and their conventionally bred counterparts (Catchpole *et al.*, 2005). Reputable organisations such as the WHO and the US National Academies of Science have issued numerous reports on the safety of GM foods. In June 2005, for instance, the WHO released a report entitled *Modern Food Biotechnology, Human Health and Development*, which has affirmed the safety of GM foods. In view of the findings, GM technology has huge potential for resolving the food and nutrition problems in Africa.

At present, the quality and yield of different varieties of the principal food crops grown and consumed in sub-Saharan Africa such as cassava, maize, yams, cocoyams, plantains, bananas, groundnuts, Irish potatoes, millet, beans, vegetables and tropical fruits are affected by several constraining factors including diseases of viral and fungal origin, poor soil and climatic conditions. In Cameroon, for example, several factors (Table 2.2) are major constraints in food production.

Table 2.2: Some food crop production constraints in Cameroon

No	Crop	Constraining factor
1	Maize	Soil acidity, aluminium toxicity, striga streak, aflatoxin
2	Cassava	Mosaic, root scale, cooking quality
3	Cocoyam	Root rot, root scale, oxalic acid content
4	Sweet potato	Weevils, virus complex
5	Irish potato	Late blight, bacterial wilt, frying quality
6	Groundnut	Aflatoxin, rosette, pod filling
7	Cocoa	Black pod

Source: Ngeve (2006)

Based on current research trends in and successes with GM technology, these constraints can be eliminated. In addition, the same technology can be used to enhance the nutritional quality of locally grown foods such as protein, iron, zinc, vitamin A, iodine, etc.

From a policy viewpoint, this should not be a matter of choice but compulsory for Africa because the successes so far in resolving food production problems on the continent have largely not been concerned with conventionally grown food crops but with GM crops. If this technology is not used to resolve Africa's food and nutrition problems, the continent will be dependent on world food trade since it is virtually an island in a sea of countries involved in GM food production (Figure 2.5). The prospects for the economies of those countries that find themselves in a situation of dependency are not encouraging.

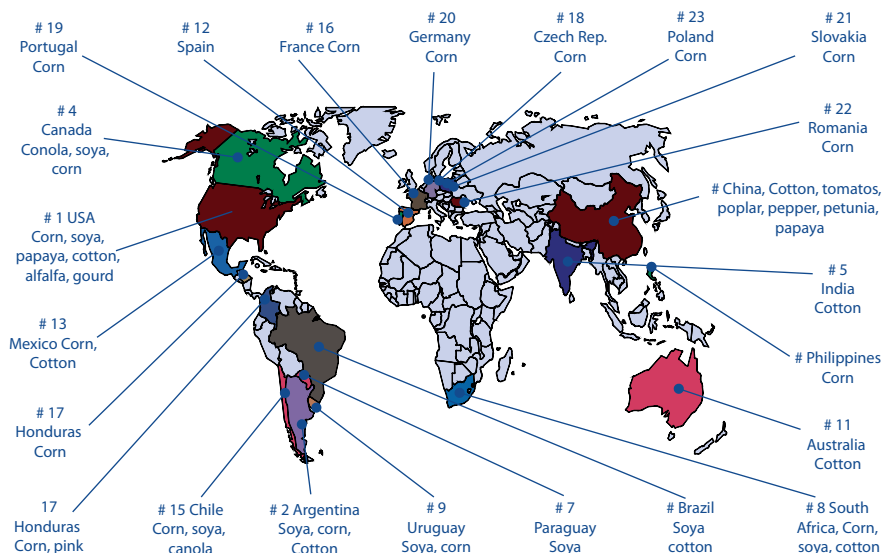


Figure 2.5: Major GMO-producing countries in 2007

In the light of the above, the opportunity now exists for African countries to boldly embrace this technology for the benefit of the huge numbers of people suffering from hunger, undernutrition and malnutrition. GM technology, with an appropriate quality control mechanism (Mbofung, 2006), can go a long way towards improving not only the yield of traditional African food crops but also their safety and nutritional quality.

Specifically, opportunities now exist for:

- (a) **Increased food production:** The main causes of reduced crop yield and availability are insect pests and fungal infection pre- and post-harvest. GM maize and sorghum resistant to these conditions can now be produced. The extension of this technology to root and tuber crops, as well as to other cereals commonly grown and consumed in Africa, would go a long way towards boosting food yields. In addition to reducing food crop losses due to pest and fungal attack, GM methods are currently available

for food crop production on otherwise infertile soil or in drought-stricken areas. A good part of the farming land in Africa is threatened by the changing climatic and soil conditions. The current success in the development of food crops that are drought resistant presents the opportunity for Africa to exploit land which was previously regarded as unsuitable for food crop production.

- (b) **Minimum use of chemicals:** Pest-resistant and herbicide-tolerant GM food crops require minimum use of chemicals against pests and weeds. This will also protect the environment from harmful chemicals. Fungal and insect attacks are common problems associated with post-harvest handling of cereals in tropical Africa. The use of chemicals to reduce these effects, in addition to being expensive, can be harmful to humans. Development of pest-resistant and herbicide-tolerant GM varieties of our local crops will minimise the use of toxic chemicals. On a slightly different note, the essential oils of some tropical plants have been advocated as alternatives to chemicals for the post-harvest storage of cereals because of their non-toxicity. For the past ten years we have been exploring the wide plant biodiversity of Cameroon as sources of essential oils with the potential for use against insect and fungal attack on grains during storage. Encouraging results have been obtained, but the difficulty lies with the yields of essential oils produced from the identified plants. GM technology could be used to overcome this difficulty.
- (c) **Improvement of local food processing and storage technologies:** The production of decaffeinated coffee entails the use of chemicals. Using GM technology, researchers in Japan have developed a process for the production of low-caffeine coffee. Cassava is a major food crop grown and consumed in Africa, but some high-yield varieties often contain significant levels of cyanogenic glucosides (linamarin and lotaustralin) which on hydrolysis release toxic **hydrocyanic acid** (HCN) which is only eliminated through tedious processing. The food value of these varieties could be improved by developing GM versions with lower cyanogenic glucoside levels. In the same vein, other tropical foods such as taro (*Colocassia esculenta*) and bean

varieties (*Phaseolus vulgaris*) harbour natural toxicants which reduce their food value. GM technology could also be applied in the development of non-toxic versions of the same.

- (d) **Micronutrient biofortification:** Some of the most disturbing cases of malnutrition in children in Africa are due to the low micronutrient content of the restricted diets they eat. GM foods with improved nutritional content could be used as a remedy for some of these conditions. Rice, which is a widely consumed cereal, is deficient in vitamin A which is important for human health. Scientists have developed a gene for rice crops ("golden" rice) that will contain the lacking vitamin. Other studies on biofortification have succeeded in producing rice with a higher iron content, which was shown to improve the iron deficiency of consumers (Haas *et al.*, 2005). Given the high incidence of micronutrient deficiency in children and pregnant women, GM technology could be used to increase the level of these micronutrients in some commonly consumed foods.
- (e) **Improvement of the protein quality and content of local foods:** Some of the important advances made in GM technology include improvement of the nutritional content of GM foods. One of the major nutritional problems facing Africa is protein malnutrition. Improvement of the protein content of foods hitherto focused on maize, and is now being applied to other cereals. "Super sorghum", which is a GMO biofortified version of a popular staple sorghum crop, is currently undergoing greenhouse trials by the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) in South Africa. It is a good example of a big step in the right direction for the alleviation of protein and micronutrient deficiencies in the diets of consumers. This success story is one example of the biofortification of several staple foods consumed in Africa but which are low in nutrient content.
- (f) **Production of functional foods:** Plant foods also contain many bioactive substances important to health. These bioactive substances, which are increasingly being

shown to be abundant in certain plant species, include carotenoids, vitamins C and E, pigments (beta-carotene, lycopene), polyphenols, etc. They are known to play a role in the prevention of malnutrition and the development of diseases such as cancer and cardiovascular disease, aging, etc. GM technology could be used to enhance the potential of the wide variety of some of our local foods to serve as functional foods. The production in the US of a GM Roma tomato containing three times more lycopene (a red pigment thought to have a role in the prevention of prostate cancer) is illustrative of this idea. Equally inspiring is the creation by researchers in Singapore of a lettuce that synthesises Resveratrol, a molecule of the red grape implicated in the “French paradox” concerning the positive effect of red wine on cholesterol metabolism. Another important research advance has been the creation of a strain of “golden” rice containing very high levels of beta-carotene (pro-vitamin A) by the Swiss Federal Institute of Technology. Since rice is widely consumed, the availability of this strain for food will contribute to the fight against avitaminosis A which affects a high proportion of people in most African countries.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, current advances in GMO technology present exciting opportunities to contribute towards the resolution of the African food and nutrition security problem. This of course will be possible only within the framework of a properly set out biotechnology policy with sufficient financing for the training of the right people, the construction of and equipment for the necessary laboratories and the carrying out of rigorously planned, results-oriented GM food research for safe and sustainable food and nutrition security. The need for a concerted effort cannot be overemphasised. Failure to take the bull by the horns in this process may leave Africa and its people at the mercy of some Western adventurers with respect to GM foods.

Bibliography

Benson, T. 2004. Africa's food and nutrition security situation: Where are we and how did we get here? *IFPRI*, 2020 Discussion Paper 37, Washington DC.

Beyer, P., Al-Babili, S., Xudong Ye, Lucca, P., Schaub, P., Welsch, R. & Potrykus, I. 2002. Golden rice: Introducing the β -carotene biosynthesis pathway into rice endosperm by genetic engineering to defeat vitamin A deficiency. *Journal of Nutrition*. 132: 506S-510S.

Catchpole, G.S. *et al.* 2005. Hierarchical metabolomics demonstrates substantial compositional similarity between genetically modified and conventional potato crops. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Science, USA*, 102(40): 14458-14462.

Haas, J.D., Beard, J.L., Murray-Kolb, L.E., del Mundo, A.M., Felix, A., & Gregorio, G.B. 2005. Iron-biofortified rice improves the iron stores of non-anemic Filipino women. *Journal of Nutrition*, 135, 2823-2830.

<http://www.gmoafrica.org/2005/06/who-reaffirms-safety-of-genetically.html>: *Modern Food Biotechnology, Human Health and Development*.

http://www.medioclubsouthafrica.co.za/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=959:super-sorghum-for-africa-&catid=48:innovation_news&Itemid=115%20#ixzz0fdrxAaIP.

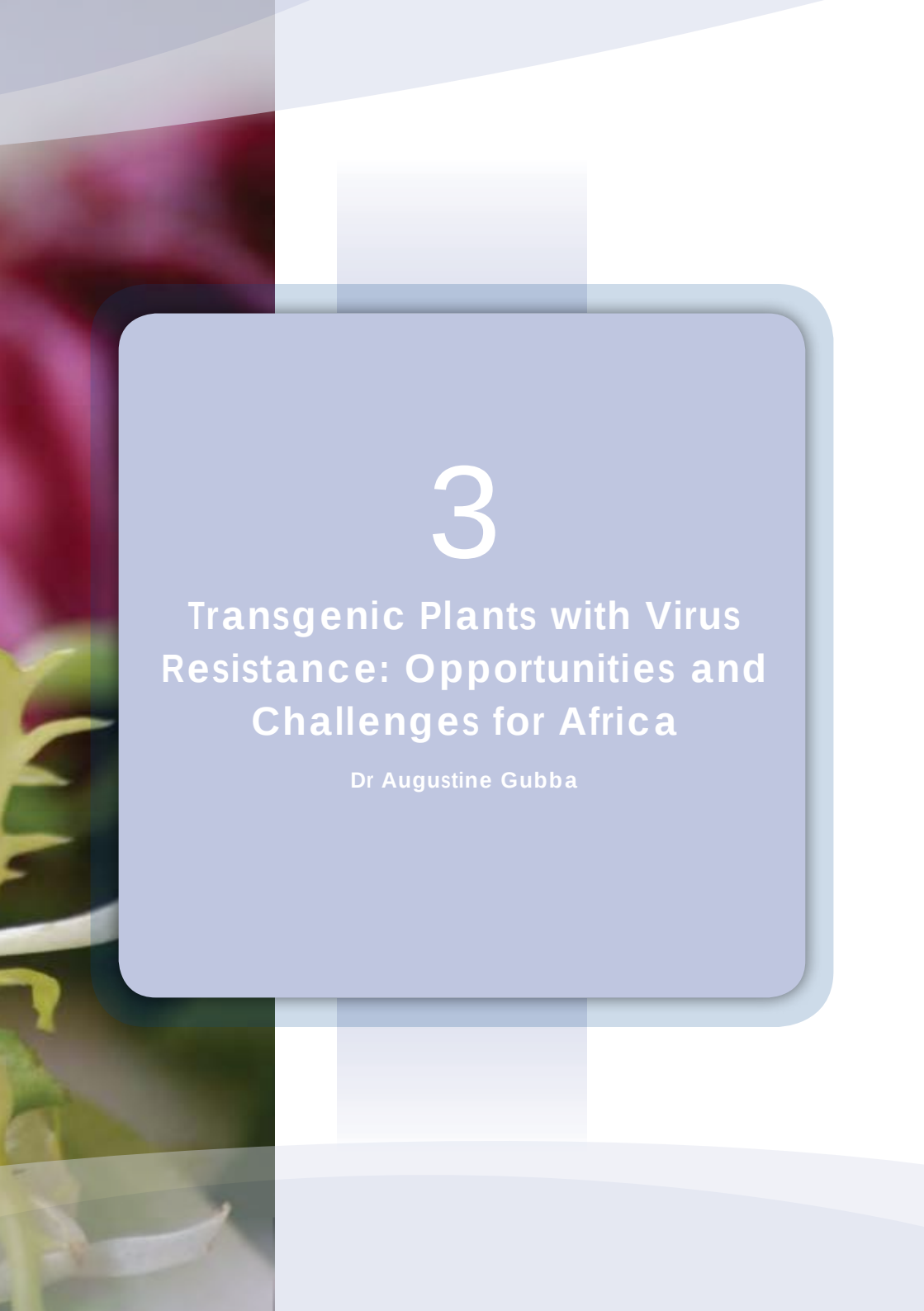
Karenlampi, S.O. & Lehesranta, S. 2006. Proteomic profiling and unintended effects in genetically modified crops. Key, S., Ma, J.K. & Drake, P.M. 2008. Genetically modified plants and human health. *Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine*, 101(6): 290-298.

Mbofung, C.M.F. 2006. Quality control in foods. *Journal of the Cameroon Academy of Sciences*, 6(1): 53-62.

Ngeve, J.M. 2006. Challenges of biotechnology and genetically modified crops for food security in a developing economy. *Journal of the Cameroon Academy of Sciences*, 6(1): 9-18.

Rosegrant, M.W., Cline, S.A., Weibo, L., Sulser, T. & Valmonte-Santos, R.A. 2004. Excerpt 2: Looking ahead: long-term prospects for Africa's food and nutrition security. In: *Assuring Food and Nutrition Security in Africa by 2020*, Proceedings of an All-Africa Conference, Kampala, Uganda, 1-3 April, Washington DC, pp. 23-26.



The background of the slide features a close-up photograph of a plant, possibly a rose, with vibrant red and pink petals. A semi-transparent blue rectangular box with rounded corners is centered over the image, serving as a backdrop for the text. The box has a subtle gradient and a slight drop shadow, giving it a three-dimensional appearance. The overall design is clean and professional, suitable for an academic or scientific presentation.

3

Transgenic Plants with Virus Resistance: Opportunities and Challenges for Africa

Dr Augustine Gubba

TRANSGENIC PLANTS WITH VIRUS RESISTANCE: OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES FOR AFRICA

DR AUGUSTINE GUBBA

Discipline of Plant Pathology, School of Agricultural Sciences & Agribusiness, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg, South Africa

1. Introduction

The use of genetically modified (GM) technology and its products in Africa is still in its infancy. South Africa, which has biosafety regulations in place, is the only country on the continent that is commercially producing GM crops. However, countries such as Egypt and Burkina Faso have recently reported growing GM crops on a commercial basis. The GM crops that are produced on a commercial basis have been limited to maize (*Zea mays* L.), cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum* L.), soybean (*Glycine max* L.) and oilseed rape (*Brassica napus* L.). These four crops have been transformed for the two traits of insect resistance and herbicide tolerance. There is a need in Africa also to develop GM crops with other important traits. This presentation will focus on the trait of plant disease resistance, specifically resistance to plant virus infection. Compared to other pathogens, such as bacteria and fungi, viruses have very simple structures and genomes, and for that reason GM crops with resistance to viral infection can easily be produced.

2. Examples of viruses of economic importance in African agriculture

For a long time viruses have been known to be major limiting factors in the production of Africa's major food and commercial crops. The literature abounds with examples of the detrimental effects of viruses on many different crops grown on the African continent (Figure 3.1). Maize streak virus (MSV) (*Zea mays* L.), discovered in 1901, is a major pathogen of maize (Wambugu, 1999; Bosque-Perez, 2000). The virus has rendered the production of

TRANSGENIC PLANTS WITH VIRUS RESISTANCE: OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES FOR Africa *Dr Augustine Gubba*

maize in some parts of Africa virtually impossible. The twin threat of cassava mosaic virus disease (CMD) and cassava brown streak virus disease (CBSD) has had devastating effects on the production of cassava (*Manihot esculenta* L.) in East and Central Africa (Gibson *et al.*, 1996; Legg & Tresh, 2000; Hillocks *et al.*, 2001; Tresh & Cooter, 2005). The hopelessness of farmers trying to eke out a living from their heavily diseased crops is a common feature in all production areas. In the recent past, banana bunchy top virus (BBTV) has emerged as a major threat to banana (*Musa paradisiacal* L.) production, putting at risk the food security of more than 70 million people in 15 countries in sub-Saharan Africa who depend on banana for their livelihood and food supply (FAO, 2001). Infected banana plants produce little or no fruit.

Bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.) is a major source of dietary protein for cash-poor farmers who constitute a large majority of people in Africa. The seed-borne viruses, bean common mosaic virus (BCMV) and bean common mosaic necrosis virus (BCMNV) continue to be serious threats to bean production on the continent (Mukeshimana *et al.*, 2003). Potato virus X (PVX), potato virus Y (PVY) and potato leafroll virus (PLRV) singly or in combination, result in substantial yield losses in potato (*Solanum tuberosum* L.) production in all areas of production. Sweet potato (*Ipomea batatas* L.) is among the most important food staples grown in sub-Saharan Africa, particularly East Africa. Efforts to control sweet potato disease virus (SPDV), a result of the synergistic interaction between sweet potato feathery mottle virus (SPFMV) and sweet potato chlorotic stunt virus (SPCSV) which results in up to 95% reduction in tuber yield of potato (*Ipomea batatas* L.) throughout Africa, are being pursued in earnest (Gibson *et al.*, 2003).

The economic impact of tomato spotted wilt virus (TSWV) is huge mainly due to its extremely broad host range and worldwide distribution (Rosello *et al.*, 1996). It possesses one of the largest host ranges of any plant virus, with over 1 090 plant species in over 100 families cited (Peters, 2003). The virus infects many different vegetable crops and reduces the marketable value of produce. With an estimated crop loss of over US\$1 million for several

crops, TSWV ranks among the ten most detrimental plant viruses worldwide (Goldbach & Peters, 1994). Zucchini yellow mosaic virus (ZYMV) occurs wherever cucurbits are grown and infected plants have very poor fruit set.

In West Africa, the production of cocoa (*Theobroma cacao* L.) has been under threat from cocoa swollen shoot virus (CSSV) for over 70 years and the search for virus-resistant cacao varieties is still on (Posnette & Todd, 2008). Côte d' Ivoire, Ghana, Nigeria and Togo record combined losses of over 500 000 tons/year. In the citrus-producing countries, infections of trees with citrus tristeza virus (CTV) have resulted in millions of infected trees being felled, leading to severe financial losses for the affected farmers (Bar-Joseph & Marcus, 1989). Control of CTV continues to be a challenge.



Figure 3.1: (a) Maize streak virus (MSV) on maize (*Zea mays* L.); (b) Cassava mosaic disease (CMD) on cassava (*Manihot esculenta* L.); (c) Banana (*Musa paradisiaca* L.) infected with banana bunchy top virus (BBTV); (d) Healthy banana

It is evident that the damage associated with viral diseases to different crops translates into major financial losses for the affected farmer and in most cases the losses are a real threat to food security. Given that the strategies that have been commonly used to control or manage plant viral diseases have not been very effective, there is an urgent need to look at alternative methods that can complement the existing strategies. To this end, the concept of pathogen-derived resistance (PDR) as described by Sanford and Johnson (1985) to produce genetically modified plants with virus resistance offers exciting possibilities.

2.1 Transgenic Papaya (*Carica papaya* L.) with Virus Resistance

One of the very few transgenic crops with virus resistance that have been commercialised is papaya (*Carica papaya* L.). Papaya with resistance to papaya ringspot virus (PRSV) is now grown on a commercial basis by farmers on the Hawaiian islands (Gonsalves, 1998). These beautiful islands have a compelling story to tell on how GM technology was used to save the local papaya industry from total collapse due to infection by PRSV. The Hawaii papaya story can be used as a model to address the many virus problems that have affected African farming communities for a long time.

At the height of the PRSV problem, abandoned papaya orchards were a common feature of the landscape in the main papaya-growing areas, and this bore testimony to the devastating effects the virus was having on the papaya industry. Efforts to control the virus using resistant papaya cultivars and cross-protection had failed dramatically. Local scientists looked at the concept of PDR for providing a lasting solution to the problem. To this end, the coat protein (CP) gene of PRSV was used in the transformation of papaya (Cai *et al.*, 1990; Fitch *et al.*, 1992). The resultant transgenic plants showed resistance to PRSV under greenhouse conditions (Tennant *et al.*, 1994).

Following a series of field tests, and having met the stringent environmental and biosafety requirements, transgenic papaya was eventually commercially released in 1998 (Gonsalves, 1998). Using GM technology, the papaya industry in Hawaii was transformed from

the seemingly hopeless state at the height of the PRSV problem to where the industry today is back to its former glory (Figure 3.2). Today, transgenic Rainbow papaya is being exported to mainland US and Canada.



Figure 3.2: (a) Papaya orchards before GM technology intervention; (b) Papaya orchards after GM technology intervention

3 Lessons from the Hawaii papaya story

The fact that the local farmers and the scientific community in Hawaii came together to solve an economically important viral disease problem shows that there is no need to involve a multinational company in such projects. The participation of multinational companies in such projects always attracts the opponents of GM who use the opportunity to portray the technology in a negative light. The papaya story is a model of how GM technology can be harnessed to solve a viral disease problem and help save a whole community from total financial ruin. This model can be adapted to suit specific environments.

4 The way forward for Africa

PDR has been demonstrated to be very effective in controlling/managing an important viral disease. It is important that the use of PDR should occupy a prominent position on the African agricultural research agenda. There is an urgent need to initiate projects that

address the numerous viral disease problems that African farmers are currently facing and have been facing for a very long time.

4.1 Development of Transgenic Plants with Virus Resistance in Africa

It is pleasing to note that different laboratories across the continent are using GM technology to develop transgenic crops with virus resistance on a routine basis. The first all-African produced modified plant in the form of transgenic maize with resistance to MSV has been developed (Shepherd *et al.*, 2007). This maize is at present being evaluated under containment. Other projects underway on the continent include:

- (a) Transgenic cucurbits and potato with resistance to several viruses being developed in Egypt.
- (b) Transgenic sweet potato with resistance to SPDV being developed in Kenya, Uganda and South Africa.
- (c) Transgenic cassava with resistance to CMD and CBSD being developed in Uganda and Kenya. Confined trials of cassava transformed for resistance to CMD are now being conducted in Uganda.

As the number of scientists with training in molecular biology, tissue culture and virology increase, there is likely to be a concomitant increase in the number of projects on developing transgenic crops with virus resistance. Against this background, the future for the development of GMOs in Africa looks promising.

4.2 Opportunities and Challenges

Given the many virus disease problems in Africa that need urgent research attention, many opportunities exist for using GM technology. However, there are many challenges that have to be addressed before these opportunities can be exploited. First, it is important for individual countries to have biosafety regulations in place so as to create environments

in which GMO research can take off. Second, it will also be necessary to identify centres of research excellence on the continent that can spearhead the research. Such centres must have a molecular biologist, a virologist and a tissue culture specialist to lead the research. Third, substantial amounts of money will be needed to fund this expensive research. The money will be used to buy equipment and consumables, and build facilities in which the research will be conducted.

5 Conclusion

GM technology in the form of GMO plants with virus resistance could be the key to unlocking the potential of African agriculture by, among other things, addressing and solving the numerous viral disease problems that have hampered the economic production of Africa's major food and commercial crops. Lessons learnt from the Hawaii transgenic papaya project can be used as a model to develop GMOs with virus resistance by the various National Agricultural Research Services (NARS) and universities across the continent. The long-suffering farmer will have a brighter future.

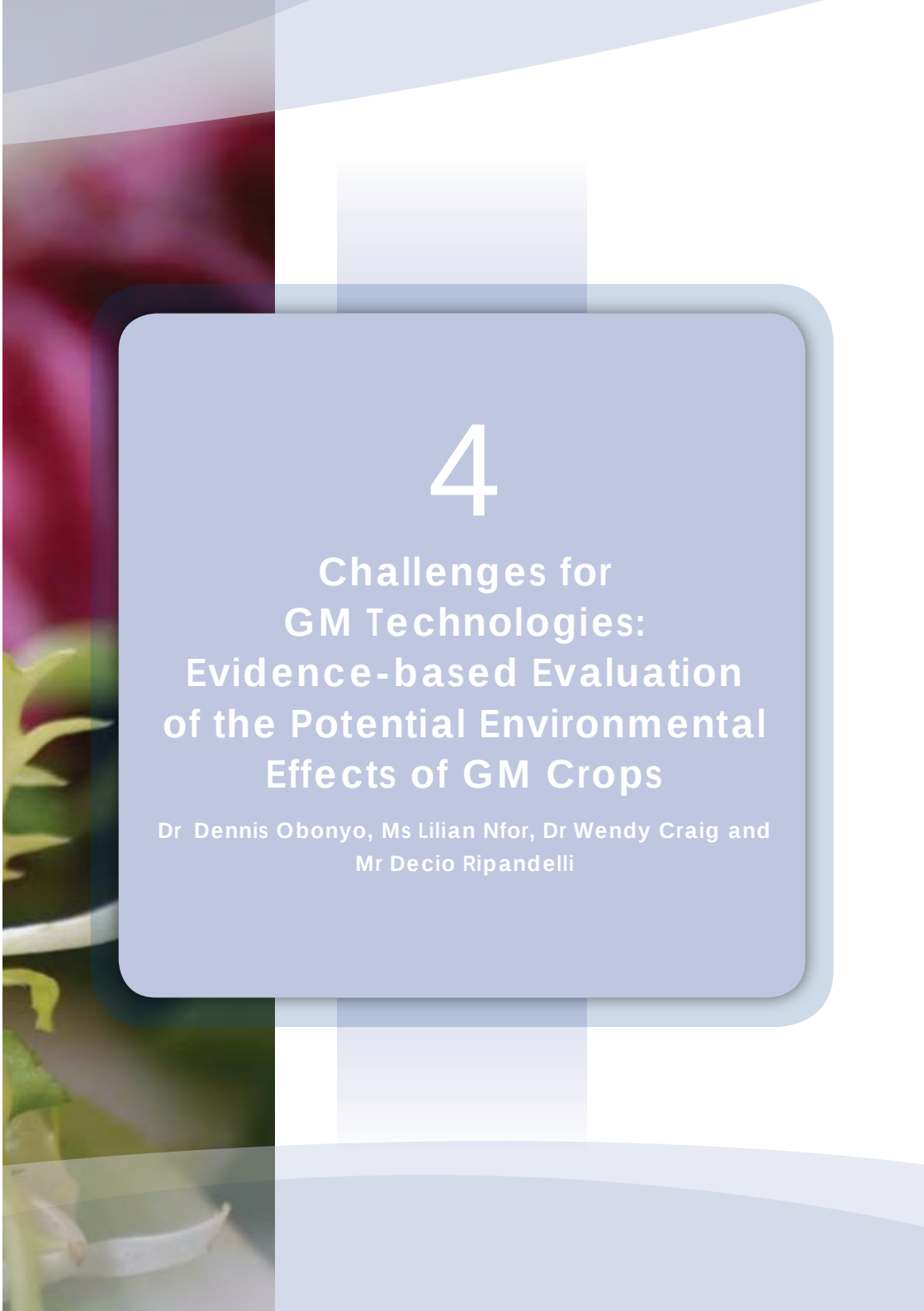
REFERENCES

- Bar-Joseph, M., Marcus, R. & Lee, R.F. 1989. The continuous challenge of *citrus tristeza virus* control. *Annual Review of Phytopathology*, 27: 291-316.
- Bosque-Perez, N.A. 2000. Eight decades of maize streak virus research. *Virus Research*, 71: 107-121.
- Cai, W., Gonsalves, C., Tennant, P., Fermin, G., Souza, M., Sarindu, N, Jan, F-J., Zhu, H-Z. & Gonsalves, D. 1990. A protocol for efficient transformation and regeneration of *Carica papaya* L. *In Vitro Cell*, 35:61-69.
- FAO: Agriculture 21: 2001. Acting together against banana diseases in Africa.
- Fitch, M.M.M., Manshardt, R.M., Gonsalves, D., Slightom, J.L. & Sanford, J.C. 1992. Virus-resistant papaya plants derived from tissues bombarded with the coat protein gene of papaya ringspot virus. *Bio/Technology*, 10: 1466-1472.
- Gibson, R.W., Legg, J.P. & Otim-Nape, G.W. 1996. Unusually severe symptoms are a characteristic of the current epidemic of mosaic virus disease of cassava in Uganda. *Annals of Applied Biology*, 128, 479-490.
- Gibson, R.W., Aritua, V., Byamukama, E., Mpende, I. & Kayongo, J. 2003. Control strategies for sweet potato disease virus in Africa. *Virus Research*, 100: 115-122.

TRANSGENIC PLANTS WITH VIRUS RESISTANCE: OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES FOR Africa *Dr Augustine Gubba*

- Goldbach, R. & Peters, D. 1994. Possible causes of the emergence of tospovirus diseases. *Seminars in Virology*, 5: 113-120.
- Gonsalves, D. 1998. Control of Papaya ringspot virus in papaya: a case study. *Annual Review of Phytopathology*, 36: 415-437.
- Hillocks, R.J., Raya, M.D., Mtanda, K. & Kiozia, H. 2001. Effects of brown streak virus disease on yield and quality of cassava in Tanzania. *Journal of Phytopathology*, 149: 389-394.
- Legg, J.P. & Tresh, J.M. 2000. Cassava mosaic virus disease in East Africa: a dynamic disease in a changing environment. *Virus Research*, 71: 135-141.
- Mukeshimana, G., Hart, L.P. & Kelly, J.D. 2003. Bean common mosaic virus and bean common mosaic necrosis virus. Michigan State University Extension Bulletin E-2894.
- Peters, D. 2003. Tospoviruses. In: Loebenstein, G. & Thottappilly, G. (Eds), *Viruses and Virus Diseases of Major Crops in Developing Countries*. Boston, USA: Kluwer Academic, pp. 719-742.
- Posnette, A.F. & Todd, J. McA. 2008. Virus diseases of cacao in West Africa VIII. The search for virus resistant cacao. *Annals of Applied Biology*, 38: 785-800.
- Rosello, S., Diez, M.J. & Nuez, F. 1996. Viral diseases causing the greatest economic losses to the tomato crop. I. The tomato spotted wilt virus – a review. *Scientia Horticulture* 76: 117-150.
- Sanford, J.C. & Johnson, S.A. 1985. The concept of parasite-derived resistance deriving resistance genes from the parasite's own genome. *Journal of Theoretical Biology*, 113: 395-405.
- Shepherd, D.N., Magwende, T., Martin, D.P., Bezuidenhout, M., Kloppers, F.J., Carolissen, C.N., Monjane, A.L., Rybicki, E.P. & Thompson, J.A. 2007. Maize streak virus-resistant transgenic maize: a first for Africa. *Plant Biotechnology Journal*, 5: 759-767.
- Tennant, P., Gonsalves, C., King, K-S., Fitch, M., Manshardt, R., Slightom, J.L. & Gonsalves, D. 1994. Differential protection against papaya ringspot virus isolates in coat protein gene transgenic papaya and classically cross-protected papaya. *Phytopathology*, 84:1359-1366.
- Tresh, J.M. & Cooter, R.J. 2005. Strategies for controlling cassava mosaic virus disease in Africa. *Plant Pathology*, 54: 587-614.
- Wambugu, F. 1999. Why Africa needs agricultural biotech. *Nature*, 400: 15-16.





4

Challenges for GM Technologies: Evidence-based Evaluation of the Potential Environmental Effects of GM Crops

**Dr Dennis Obonyo, Ms Lilian Nfor, Dr Wendy Craig and
Mr Decio Ripandelli**

CHALLENGES FOR GM TECHNOLOGIES: EVIDENCE-BASED EVALUATION OF THE POTENTIAL ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECTS OF GM CROPS

**DR DENNIS OBONYO, MS LILIAN NFOR, DR WENDY CRAIG AND
MR DECIO RIPANDELLI**

Dennis Obonyo and Lilian Nfor – International Centre for Genetic Engineering and Biotechnology (ICGEB), Cape Town Component, UCT Campus, Wernher and Beit Building (South), Anzio Road, Observatory-7925, Cape Town, South Africa

Wendy Craig and Decio Ripandelli – Biosafety Unit, International Centre for Genetic Engineering and Biotechnology (ICGEB), Area Science Park, Padriciano, 99, 34012 Trieste, Italy

Corresponding author E-mail: ndolo@icgeb.org

Abstract

The human population in Africa has undergone a rapid increase in the last decade and this, coupled with problems such as erratic rainfall, prolonged droughts and agricultural pest problems, has resulted in severe food insecurity. Advanced agricultural technologies, including the use of genetically modified organisms (GMOs), could play a role in enhancing agricultural productivity in Africa. However, despite the apparent potential of GMOs to improve agricultural production, there is still a significant debate regarding the extent of the risks posed by GM crops. A number of concerns pertaining to the possible impacts of these crops have been raised and they include food safety, animal/human health, environmental, agricultural and socioeconomic issues. Even though potential impacts range from negative through to positive, the potential negative impacts are the most pronounced in the perceptions of policy-makers and the general public in Africa. Given the many concerns, there is a great need for accurate, credible scientific and technical

information, appropriate biosafety regulatory systems, policies, legal instruments, and decision-making processes to enable the assessment (and deployment) of GMOs in a rational, scientifically based manner. This paper reviews some of the concerns that have been expressed regarding GM crops and outlines some of the key principles of biosafety that are relevant to their safety assessment and sound decision-making in the context of their potential environmental impacts.

1 Introduction

Population projections estimate that, during the past decade, the human population in Africa has increased from 820 million to over 1 billion (DESA UN, 2009). This, coupled with problems such as erratic rainfall, prolonged droughts and agricultural pest problems, has resulted in severe food insecurity (Mataruka, 2009). The total number of undernourished people in the world reached 963 million in 2008, nearly 15% of the world's population (OECD-FAO, 2009), and it is predicted that the number of people living in hunger will soon surpass the 1 billion mark (FAO, 2009a). Sub-Saharan Africa is the most food-insecure region in the world, and many countries on the continent have seen significant increases in food imports while domestic food production has failed to keep pace with rising food demand (FAO, 2009b).

Paarlberg (2008) attributes the high poverty and hunger levels in Africa to low levels of land and labour productivity: "For farmers in Africa today, productivity is low and poverty high because far too little science has been brought to farming. Currently, only 4% of Africa's farmland is irrigated, less than 30% is planted to improved seeds, and average fertiliser use is only 9 kg per hectare, compared to 117 kg per hectare in the industrialised world." To enhance land and labour productivity, he proposes that African farmers must utilise improved technologies such as improved draft animals, fertilisers and insect- and disease-resistant crop varieties. This brings into sharp focus the role that advanced agricultural technologies, such as genetically modified organisms (GMOs), could play in improving

agriculture for socioeconomic development in Africa. Concerns pertaining to the use of GM technology will increasingly play a role in shaping the structure of agricultural production over the medium term (OECD-FAO, 2009).

The global area under GM crop cultivation is rapidly increasing. By 2008, GM crops (mostly herbicide-tolerant) were cultivated on up to 125 million ha worldwide (James, 2008). These crops have been demonstrated to enhance agricultural productivity and have the potential to address some of the challenges facing agricultural production in Africa. For example, under rain-fed irrigation, *Bt* maize (expressing genes that encode insecticidal proteins from the bacterium *Bacillus thuringiensis*) increased maize production in South Africa by 11% (James, 2008); in Burkina Faso, *Bt* cotton cultivation resulted in a two-thirds reduction in pesticide usage and 15% higher yield (Vitale *et al.*, 2008).

Despite the apparent potential of GM crops to improve agricultural production, there is still significant debate regarding the risks posed by the technology. For the potential benefits of GM crops to be realised, it is necessary that they be assessed (and deployed) in a rational, science-based manner. Several African countries have therefore put in place policies and regulatory frameworks to support the responsible and safe use of biotechnology, assure public confidence, encourage local biotechnology innovation based on local priority needs, and help mitigate against any possible adverse effects on human health and the environment. This paper reviews some of the concerns that have been expressed regarding GM crops (drawing on examples from insect-resistant [IR] and herbicide-tolerant [HT] crops) and outlines some of the key principles of biosafety that are relevant to their safety assessment and sound decision-making with specific regard to their potential environmental impacts.

2 Concerns regarding GM crops

Most concerns about GM crops can be placed into four broad categories: food safety and animal/human health concerns, environmental concerns, agricultural concerns

and socioeconomic issues. Although the primary focus of this paper is on the potential environmental effects of GM crops, the term "environment" has a very broad definition in common usage and therefore a wider array of issues surrounding GM crops are also discussed.

Environmental concerns that have been expressed with regard to GM crops include: negative impact(s) on "non-target organisms", gene flow, invasiveness, new pests and diseases, and unexpected variability (Kohi, 2006; Thies & Devare, 2007). For example, potential effects on non-target species may occur if GM crops produce novel defensive compounds (e.g. *Bt* toxin to prevent extended insect attack).

One of the agricultural concerns that have been expressed with regard to pest-resistant GM crops is the development of resistance by the target pest to the protective transgenic compound in the crops (Thies & Devare, 2007). In this case, the primary concern is the loss of usefulness of the control strategy, as has been frequently observed with conventional breeding for resistance or application of chemical pesticides (Conner *et al.*, 2003). Strategies to delay the development of such resistance include the selection of transformation events expressing very high toxin levels, stacking different insect-resistance transgenes together in the same GM variety, and strategically planting nearby non-resistant crops or plants as refugia to allow any resistant individuals that might develop to mate with non-resistant individuals in order to reduce the frequency of resistance genes in the insect population (Bates *et al.*, 2005).

While the aforementioned agricultural and environmental safety-related concerns are often presented as generic concerns when discussing biotechnology, socioeconomic issues also pose challenges to decision-making bodies. The issues raised include: monopoly control by transnational companies; profit margins being squeezed between seed cost and declining world prices; possible loss of existing robust crop varieties and technologies and challenging market dynamics, especially with the European Union (EU). Other issues include benefit-sharing, the transferability of biosafety assessments across the region and beyond, and the co-existence of organic and GM crops (Sengooba *et al.*, 2009).

In addition to potential negative effects of GM crops on the environment, there are also potential positive effects. For example, the use of insect-resistant transgenic crops can lead to lower applications of conventional pesticides, and hence minimise environmental pollution. Potential effects of GM crops therefore run right through the continuum from negative to positive, as illustrated by the following examples pertaining to insect-resistant and herbicide-tolerant crops. Obonyo (2009) found variable effects of *Bt* maize plants on a number of non-target organisms associated with maize fields. The farm-scale field trials in the UK also clearly documented the fact that the impact of GM crop cultivation on biodiversity can be either positive or negative and always depended upon the agriculture system as a whole, and not on the GM crop (Firbank *et al.*, 2003).

2.1 Insect-Resistant (IR) GM Crops

Numerous reports have documented reduced pesticide use resulting from the cultivation of *Bt* crops engineered for resistance to specific insect pests (Morse *et al.*, 2005; Brookes & Barfoot, 2006; Raney, 2006; Vitale *et al.*, 2008). Introduced genes in *Bt* crops encode crystalline (Cry) toxins, each of which acts very specifically on a narrow range of insect or nematode species. *B. thuringiensis*, either in the form of spores, bacterial suspension or partly purified toxin preparation, is commonly used by organic farmers as a biopesticide. However, the more spatially controlled toxin application via GM crops has raised concerns about possible effects on non-target organisms. A well-cited case by opponents of the technology is that of the laboratory studies on the Monarch butterfly (Losey *et al.*, 1999), where the consumption of excess (and therefore unrealistic) doses of *Bt* expressing maize pollen by larvae was shown to have a deleterious effect. Follow-up studies in the breeding grounds of Monarch butterflies, however, demonstrated that pollen distribution patterns and subsequent deposits on milkweed plants (the main food source of larvae) within and outside the corn fields are at levels that are highly unlikely to affect caterpillars which feed on them (Pleasants *et al.*, 2001; Sears *et al.*, 2001; Stanley-Horn *et al.*, 2001). Beneficial effects from the cultivation of *Bt* crops include the reduction of insecticide use (this also implies further savings on manpower, fuel consumption and less soil damage caused by heavy machinery), more effective pest control, and consequently higher yields (Ismael

et al., 2002). Indirect benefits include reduced contamination of the soil and waters by crop-protection chemicals and in some situations reduced mycotoxin contamination in the crop (Huesing & English, 2004).

2.2 Herbicide-Tolerant (HT) GM Crops

Herbicide-tolerant GM crops are those which have been transformed by genetic engineering such that they are unharmed when sprayed with a broad-spectrum herbicide while crop-infesting weeds are destroyed. However, the transfer of herbicide resistance genes to previously susceptible wild species may allow the recipients to proliferate in the presence of the herbicide (Dale, 1992). In addition, if two HT transgenes become present in the same host variety or varieties, the resulting plants are likely to be tolerant to both herbicides. This could have an impact if the host plants become volunteers in the next growing season. Therefore there is a need to assess the consequences of any potential transfer, and to consider suitable crop management strategies to minimise likely negative impacts.

The selection and spread of weeds resistant to a particular broad-spectrum herbicide is the most frequently highlighted risk of HT crops (Sehna & Drobnik, 2009). HT weeds could evolve either through (a) gene transfer to any weeds that successfully hybridise with the GM crop (for example, rice can cross-pollinate with wild relatives that already frequently appear as significant crop infestations), or (b) spontaneous mutation, followed by selection under herbicide pressure. This potential adverse effect aside, it is worthy of mention that the cultivation of HT crops has led to the use of less toxic herbicides and reduced fuel-use, and has facilitated the adoption of reduced-tillage or no-till production methods, hence helping to preserve soil quality and reducing soil erosion (Brookes & Barfoot, 2006).

3 What does the scientific literature say?

3.1 Effects of Insect-Resistant *Bt* Crops on Non-Target Organisms

This section reviews some of the studies that have been carried out on impacts of *Bt* crops on non-target organisms, with significant focus on natural enemies (predators and parasitoids) of agricultural pests.

A number of meta-analyses of data, collated from a wide range of non-target studies conducted on *Bt* crops, mainly from peer-reviewed journals but also from non-peer-reviewed reports, and from industry studies conducted to gain regulatory authorisation, were recently published (e.g. Duan *et al.*, 2008; Marvier *et al.*, 2007; Wolfenbarger *et al.*, 2008). These have largely shown the expected lack of effect of *Bt* proteins on non-target invertebrates, regardless of whether organisms were categorised taxonomically (order to species) or by ecological functional guilds. However, with the exception of Duan and colleagues (laboratory honeybee studies), the analyses focused on field studies. In an extension to these analyses, Naranjo (2009) added data from 14 more studies (on *Bt* eggplant and *Bt* rice) to the cotton, maize and potato analyses from the original study by Wolfenbarger and colleagues (2008). The results from this later enlarged meta-analysis did not indicate any qualitative alteration to the patterns for ecological functional guilds previously observed.

Collectively, the non-target studies performed to date demonstrate that *Bt* crops do not have any unexpected toxic effects on natural enemy species of agricultural pests, as would be predicted from knowledge of the mode of action and specificity of *Bt* proteins. *Bt* crops therefore effectively preserve local populations of various economically important biological control organisms that can be adversely impacted by broad-spectrum chemical insecticides. The only indirect effects on non-target organisms that have been observed with *Bt* crops are local reductions in the numbers of certain specialist parasitoids whose hosts are the primary targets of *Bt* crops. Such trophic effects will be associated with any

effective pest control technology, whether it be transgenic, chemical or cultural, as well as with natural fluctuations in host populations (Head, 2005).

3.1.1 Effects of Insect-Resistant *Bt* Crops on Insect Predators

Natural enemies of crop pests, and particularly generalist arthropod predators, have been the focus of many scientific studies due to their role in the biological control of various agricultural pests. Based on what is known about the limited spectrum of activity of the *Bt* proteins (Cry proteins) expressed in current *Bt* crops, no direct toxic effects from *Bt* crops would be expected for any of these species. As predicted, Tier 1 (“worst case scenario”) laboratory studies required by the regulatory process for *Bt* crops have not demonstrated any direct toxic effects of Cry1, Cry2 or Cry3 proteins against insect predators for concentrations at or much greater than maximum possible exposure levels under natural conditions (for example, see reviews in Betz *et al.*, 2000). Obviously these tests are not designed to mimic natural exposure, nor do they test all possible species that could be exposed, but they do represent stringent tests of possible hazard characterisation using carefully chosen surrogate species.

Researchers interested in the fate of particular predatory species have carried out additional laboratory and semi-field tests of potential non-target impacts (e.g. Pilcher *et al.*, 1997; Bai *et al.*, 2005; Ahmad *et al.*, 2006; Ludy & Lang, 2006). These tests have used a variety of designs, with differing degrees of realism in terms of the route and level of *Bt* exposure. Given that many predators feed on pollen at some point in their life-cycle, many of these studies have involved feeding predatory insect species pollen from *Bt* crops and comparable control lines. None of these studies have found any adverse impacts of *Bt* pollen on the survival or development of various insect predators.

Even though the above studies involved direct exposure, under field conditions exposure can also occur through secondary pathways, with predators feeding upon herbivores that have fed on a *Bt* crop. Secondary exposure of this sort should have relatively little impact

on arthropod predators for the same reasons outlined above for direct exposure. However, one set of studies has been presented as a possible example of adverse impacts through secondary exposure. Hilbeck and colleagues (1998a, 1998b) performed a number of tri-trophic laboratory studies with the predatory lacewing *Chrysoperla carnea*, feeding these larvae on prey lepidopteran larvae that had previously fed on *Bt* corn. They found higher mortality and slower development of lacewings exposed to *Bt*-intoxicated insects than for lacewings fed on comparable controls. Subsequent studies by other researchers indicate that these results actually reflected feeding on nutritionally poorer prey rather than any toxic effect of the *Bt* protein (Dutton *et al.*, 2002; Romeis *et al.*, 2004). Such a situation should have little relevance in the field due to the presence of other prey sources that are not affected by *Bt* crops. Furthermore, tri-trophic studies by Al-Deeb and colleagues (2001) with *Orius insidiosus* saw no effect when feeding on *Bt*-intoxicated prey. In this case, the results were confirmed with direct feeding studies on *Bt* corn silks and field observations.

Numerous field studies (e.g. Riddick *et al.*, 1998; Sisterson *et al.*, 2007; Wolfenbarger *et al.*, 2008) have focused on generalist predators, particularly *Coleomegilla maculata*, *C. carnea*, *O. insidiosus*, and guilds of carabids because of their abundance in crop fields and their perceived importance. No adverse effects have been observed for any of these species or in the broader, community-level studies of *Bt* corn (e.g. Pilcher *et al.*, 1997; Lozzia, 1999; Candolfi *et al.*, 2004; Pilcher *et al.*, 2005) and *Bt* cotton (Xia *et al.*, 1999; Hagerty *et al.*, 2005). The absence of even indirect trophic effects of *Bt* corn and *Bt* cotton in these studies is not surprising because most of the predatory species feed on a wide array of prey species, the vast majority of which are not directly impacted by *Bt* corn, e.g. sucking insects such as aphids and whiteflies. In contrast, insecticidal sprays used in the cultivation of conventional corn have clear adverse impacts, at least transiently, on almost all common predators, and particularly those species foraging above ground (Candolfi *et al.*, 2004). Similarly, the insecticidal sprays used in conventional cotton also had clear adverse impacts on almost all of the important arthropod predators studied (Xia *et al.*, 1999; Hagerty *et al.*, 2005; Wu & Guo, 2005).

3.1.2 Effects of Insect-Resistant *Bt* Crops on Parasitoids

Given what is known about the spectrum of activity of the *Bt* proteins expressed in currently commercially available *Bt* crops (Clark *et al.*, 2005), no direct toxic effects on any parasitoid species are expected. Furthermore, because the larvae of these groups feed solely on other arthropods, larval parasitoids will not face any direct exposure (Head, 2005). Adult exposure due to their occasional feeding on pollen or nectar will also be very limited. As with arthropod predatory species, Tier 1 laboratory studies have not found any direct toxic effects on parasitoids of Cry1, Cry2 or Cry3 proteins, at concentrations equivalent to or much greater than the maximum possible exposure level under natural conditions (see reviews in Betz *et al.*, 2000). However, secondary exposure to *Bt* proteins may occur if the parasitoids feed on herbivore larvae that have fed upon *Bt* plant material. In addition, indirect effects may occur at the population level if the host species of the parasitoid(s) are a target of the *Bt* crop and are depressed in numbers. Secondary exposure studies indicate that parasitoids developing on hosts exposed to *Bt* protein may be adversely impacted. When reared on *Bt*-susceptible insects previously fed on *Bt* corn, the larval development and mortality of the parasitoid *Parallorhogas pyralophagus* were adversely affected, but the fitness of emerging adults was not impacted (Bernal *et al.*, 2002). Obonyo (2009) found varying effects of *Bt*-intoxicated stem borer hosts on the development and fitness parameters of their tested parasitoids *Cotesia sesamiae*, *C. flavipes* and *Xanthopimpla stemmator*.

A major determinant of the relative impact that *Bt* crops have on non-target species derives from the fundamental difference in their toxin delivery mechanism (*in planta*) as compared to conventional insecticides (*ex planta*). Non-target species must consume *Bt* plant material in order to be directly exposed, and therefore, as non-herbivores, many parasitoids will never be exposed. Because of their specificity, parasitoids of *Bt* target pest larvae would be expected to be rarer in fields of *Bt* crops than in comparable fields of non-sprayed conventional crops. As expected, the few specialist parasitoids that parasitise

Ostrinia nubilalis and certain other stalk-boring Lepidoptera in corn have been found to be rarer in Bt corn than in conventional corn, e.g. *Macrocentrus cingulum* (Candolfi *et al.*, 2004). Similarly, the few specialist parasitoids that parasitise foliage-feeding Lepidoptera, such as *Helicoverpa armigera*, have been found to be rarer in Bt cotton than in non-Bt cotton (e.g. Xia *et al.*, 1999). Of course, it is important to consider these results in the context of alternative practices. As mentioned earlier, the insecticidal sprays used in conventional corn (Candolfi *et al.*, 2004) and cotton (Xia *et al.*, 1999; Hagerty *et al.*, 2005; Wu & Guo, 2005) have clear adverse impacts, at least transiently, on these same parasitoid species. Furthermore, any effective pest control practice that decreases the abundance of the host species will have comparable effects.

3.2 Potential Environmental Effects of HT Crops

One of the most widely reported examples of studies on the potential environmental impacts of HT crops were the farm-scale evaluations carried out in the UK. These were a series of multi-year comparisons of agricultural biodiversity in conventional and transgenic HT maize, oilseed rape (spring- and autumn-sown) and sugar beet fields, which were undertaken as a response to public concerns of the effects of cultivation of transgenic HT crops on farmland wildlife (Firbank *et al.*, 2003). The farm-scale evaluations tested the null hypothesis that “transgenic HT crops had no effect on farmland biodiversity compared with a conventional cropping system” (Squire *et al.*, 2003). The results of the studies can be summarised as follows: in oilseed rape and sugar beet there were fewer weeds that set seed in the transgenic HT crop than in the conventional crop, whereas in maize there were more weeds in the transgenic HT crop; invertebrate numbers tended to be positively correlated with the abundance of weeds, although some taxa showed the opposite relationship; and in general, there were more decomposers in the fields of transgenic HT crops (Ammann, 2005). See Raybould (2007) for a critical analysis of the farm-scale evaluation studies.

Sweet and colleagues (2004) observed no direct impact of the transgenes in HT winter oilseed rape and sugar, nor the transgenic crops themselves on crop production and

botanical diversity. Differences observed between treatments were attributable to the herbicide programmes. The GM HT crops, however, required fewer herbicide applications than conventional crops. Antonio and Duke (2006), in a review on the environmental impacts of glyphosate-tolerant (GT) crops, noted that no risks had been found with respect to food or feed safety nor nutritional value in products from currently available GT crops. They noted that GT crops have promoted the adoption of reduced or no-tillage agriculture in the US and Argentina, providing a substantial environmental benefit. The review also showed that weed species in GT crop fields have shifted to those that can more successfully withstand glyphosate and to those that avoid the time of its application. It also indicated that three weed species have evolved resistance to glyphosate in GT crops and that GT crops have a greater potential to become problems as volunteer crops than do conventional non-HT crops. They also reported that GT transgenes had unexpectedly been found in fields of conventional oilseed rape, indicating that the largest risk of GT crops may arise from transgene flow (introgression) from GT crops to their related wild species. They concluded, however, that all of the minimal environmental risks that have been discussed in relation to GT crops are reversible and are in most cases not exclusive to transgenic crops, except for those associated with flow of transgenes to other plants (the same species or other species).

A review by Kleter and colleagues (2008) of data collected from studies on a number of GT crops in Europe indicated that, depending on the parameters used for the prediction or measurement of the environmental impacts of GT crops, generally similar or less negative impacts were observed compared with conventional crops. They concluded that favourable environmental effects of the glyphosate-containing herbicide regimes on GT crops appear feasible, provided appropriate measures for maintaining biodiversity and prevention of volunteers and gene flow are applied. Graef (2009), in a review of the potential agro-environmental effects of cultivating GM oilseed rape, also noted the importance of monitoring for persistence and/or spread of feral HT oilseed rape and volunteers, the transfer of herbicide tolerance to wild relatives and a decline in agro-

biodiversity, the development of herbicide tolerance in weeds, as well as any adverse effects on field organisms and/or soil bio-geochemical cycles. Powell and colleagues (2009) conducted a series of microcosm and field experiments in Ontario, Canada, that estimated the effects of transgenic GT crops and their management on the abundances of detritivorous soil biota and crop litter decomposition. Although the conventional and GT varieties studied differed in composition, they observed few effects of the modification for glyphosate-tolerance on maize and soya bean litter decomposition. Overall, the herbicide system associated with the GT crops reduced soya bean and corn litter decomposition, but responses were inconsistent across Ontario, with many trials demonstrating no effect. Herbicide-tolerant crops can therefore enhance agricultural productivity and, with appropriate measures in place, any potential risks can be kept in check.

4 Principles of biosafety and risk assessment

Biosafety worldwide is heavily influenced by the Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety (henceforth referred to as the Protocol), an international agreement to which many African countries are signatories (CBD, 2000). According to the Protocol, biosafety refers to “the need to protect human health and the environment from the possible adverse effects of the products of modern biotechnology”. The Protocol recognises that, in as much as modern biotechnology has a great potential for the promotion of human well-being, appropriate procedures have to be put in place to enhance the safety of biotechnology. For example, Article 16, Paragraph 1, states that “The Parties shall, taking into account Article 8 (g) of the Convention, establish and maintain appropriate mechanisms, measures and strategies to regulate, manage and control risks identified in the risk assessment provisions of this Protocol associated with the use, handling and transboundary movement of living modified organisms”. In addition, Article 2, Paragraph 2 of the Protocol states that “The Parties shall ensure the development, handling, transport, use, transfer and release of any living modified organisms are undertaken in a manner that prevents or reduces the risks to biological diversity, taking also into account risks to human health”.

Therefore in order to evaluate GM crops for safety, an acknowledgment of their potential benefits must be made in addition to an evaluation of the potential damage to the environment and human and animal health. Any biosafety evaluation of GM crops and their products must be based on an understanding of the technologies used in their development, a comparison of GM crops with the non-modified recipients or parental organisms, and the difference of GM crop production practices with those of current agricultural practices and their potential impacts. Evaluation of the benefits and risks of GM crops is necessary in order to set the level of acceptable risk as a basis for decision-making concerning the acceptance or refusal of the technology in any given situation (Sehnal & Drobnik, 2009). Economics may also be taken into account, in particular in any evaluations of the long-term use.

A review by Hill and Sendashonga (2003) identified a number of key lessons (drawn from the experiences with chemical risk assessment) which have possibly served as useful principles to guide the risk assessment of GMOs. These include:

- a) considering multiple lines of evidence
- b) assessing risks in a comparative context
- c) flexibility regarding the level of detail for risk assessments
- d) having iterative and adaptive risk assessments which could be re-evaluated whenever there have been changes that affect risk assessments
- e) being able to assess cumulative effects as part of the risk assessments.

5 Risk assessment in practice

Risk may be defined as the probability of damage resulting from exposure to a hazard. As no activity is without risk, the risk scale does not start with zero, and only relative risk can be assessed by comparison with alternative human activities. Risk assessment has

been defined in a number of ways. For example, the European Commission (EC, 2000) defines risk assessment as "a process of evaluation including the identification of the attendant uncertainties, of the likelihood and severity of an adverse effect(s)/event(s) occurring to man or the environment following exposure under defined conditions to a risk source(s)". According to WHO (1995), risk assessment is the "scientific evaluation of known or potential adverse health effects resulting from human exposure to food-borne hazards." A risk assessment generally identifies the likelihood of exposure to a hazard and the magnitude of the consequences of the exposure on human health (Fischer *et al.*, 2005), and the environment. It is often decomposed into four elements: hazard identification, hazard characterisation, exposure assessment and risk characterisation (EC, 2000; Codex Alimentarius, 2007).

Publications and guidance documents on environmental risk assessment (USA EPA, 1998; EC, 2003; Suter, 2006) have outlined coherent and logical steps to progressively and iteratively proceed to a point where a risk is characterised and the evidence supporting the conclusion is clearly communicated. This process has been successfully used for chemical stressors and has been described in detail by the American Environmental Protection Agency (USA EPA, 1998). The process follows the steps of: problem formulation as the beginning; assessment of the exposure, including levels and likelihood of exposure; hazard identification and assessment that examine the potential hazard(s) using effects testing and the magnitude of the potential outcome; and risk characterisation that integrates the hazard, the magnitude of the consequences, and the likelihood of occurrence. Regulatory decisions regarding the acceptability of introducing a potentially harmful agent into the environment are based on the characterised risk (Nickson, 2008). Experimental testing is performed by following established procedures, e.g. feeding tests, allergy induction assays, *in vitro* digestibility tests, etc. (WTO, 2009). Since these tests are expensive, any regulatory decision to require testing should be taken in a responsible manner.

In addition to the intended target effects, these studies may reveal differences between a GM and the comparator, but differences from standard crop cultivation practices that

include protective measures against insect pests, weeds, etc. should also be tested. It is necessary also to consider extra comparators that help to place differences between the GM and its counterpart in context (Perry *et al.*, 2009). For example, comparisons should also be made with plots subjected to the standard agricultural practices and, if possible, cultivars with similar properties as the GM cultivars but obtained by other breeding methods (Sehnal & Drobnik, 2009). Furthermore, HT GM plants *per se* are unlikely to affect biodiversity, but the use of herbicides associated with their cultivation may have a deleterious impact. HT varieties developed by other breeding techniques, together with their required herbicide regime, should therefore be included in the studies to act as comparators.

Ideally, a risk assessment should be accompanied by a benefit assessment performed under the same conditions and using an identical methodology. The benefit:risk ratio is not only extremely useful in the identification of an acceptable level of risk, but also in decision-making. The potential risks and benefits from the introduction of a new GM crop can be assessed only by a comparison with currently grown varieties, either conventional non-GM or pre-existing GM, cultivated with the use of standard procedures, including the application of any necessary insecticides, herbicides, etc. (Sehnal & Drobnik, 2009). Agriculture has inevitably converted natural, diversified ecosystems to monoculture-based agro-ecosystems that are sometimes exploited to the point of irreversible damage. The evaluation of the potential environmental impacts of new technologies is dictated by the need to mitigate such damage for the sake of agriculture sustainability. GM crops should be scrutinised as is any other technology, and based upon possible significant effects on food safety and the agro-ecosystem. Even though new cultivars introduce a novel genetic set-up to the ecosystem, care should be taken to discriminate between the direct impact of the new plant varieties themselves with those derived from their associated agronomic practices, i.e. the methods of field management, applications of any chemicals, crop-selection and rotation, etc. The impact of new technologies can be either positive or negative, or even a mixture of the two (Prakash, 2001); there is no reason to classify some technologies *a priori* as negative and “risky”.

It is important to note, however, that the collection of large amounts of data may not be necessary for effective risk assessment decision-making. Craig and colleagues (2008) reported that "In the decade since the first authorisations for commercial release of GM crops, there has been an enormous increase in the amount of data generated by scientific studies that relates to risk assessment. If this trend continues, we run the risk of competent authorities being submerged by excessively large amounts of data that may be of questionable pertinence to verifiable safety questions." In fact, an effective risk assessment should seek to minimise the amount of data required to reach a sound judgement because collection of superfluous data often confuses decision-making and diverts effort from more worthwhile activities (Raybould, 2006). Indeed, if the collection of additional data delays the introduction of a beneficial product, overall environmental risk may be increased rather than reduced (Cross, 1996). Emphasis must therefore be placed only on data that will facilitate the making of a sound judgement (Craig & Tepfer, 2007).

6 Conclusion

The regulation of agricultural biotechnology has both immediate and long-lasting socio-economic consequences and can affect the sustainability of agro-ecosystems. Policy-makers are responsible for formulating regulations, while scientists are charged to provide and evaluate information necessary for prudent decisions. It would be extremely useful for open debates if the public were familiar with the nature of various breeding methods, as well as those of GM technologies. Knowledgeable citizens would then be able to positively contribute to the discussions concerning possible safety measures and GM crop deployment. Scientifically unjustified bans on the deployment of GM crops may slow down agricultural output, and could further compound the dire food security situation in Africa. The socioeconomic factors affecting GM crop deployment also include pressure from various interest groups. All these issues are very volatile and hard to control. It is important that GM crops be assessed on a case-by-case basis. The evaluation of the possible risks arising from the deployment of a particular GM crop in the receiving environment should

include the results of prior research, and may or may not require the generation of new information.

It has been argued that GM crops should not be used, even when there may be a very low probability of the occurrence of an unpredictable adverse effect on the environment or on human health (Nuffield Council on Bioethics, 2003). This case is frequently cited in terms of the precautionary approach in the Protocol which emanated from Principle 15 of the Rio Declaration which states: "In order to protect the environment, the precautionary approach shall be widely applied by States according to their capabilities. Where there are threats of serious or irreversible damage, lack of full scientific certainty shall not be used as a reason for postponing cost-effective measures to prevent environmental degradation." Some people have contended that irrespective of possible benefits, the precautionary approach argues for a delay in the use of the technology until a complete assurance of absence of risk is available (Nuffield Council on Bioethics, 2003). Interestingly, however, the text of the Protocol can also be interpreted as permitting the introduction of GM crops with their associated risks if they are likely to be less than the risks inherent in current practices, even if the full extent of the reduction is not known. The former argument could lead to an inappropriate embargo on the introduction of all new technology. Since an absolute absence of risk arising from the use of any new technology can never be guaranteed, the only sensible interpretation of the precautionary principle should be comparative, i.e. to select the course of action (or inaction) with the least overall risk (Nuffield Council on Bioethics, 2003).

Scientific research has to clarify the possible environmental effects of GM crops, and place them in the context of real-life scenarios. This should take into account: the gene (or combination of genes) being inserted; the nature of the target crop; local agricultural practices, agro-ecological conditions, trade policies, etc. So far, it is not possible to make generalisations on the effects of GM technologies. Any judgement of the impact of GM crops should be made on a case-by-case basis using a rational, evidence-based

approach (FAO, 2003). It is essential to pose the question: “How does the use of a GM crop compare to the alternatives?” In making decisions, all possible paths of action must be compared, including inaction.

Even though there is little evidence of specific harmful effects from the millions of acres of transgenic crops grown worldwide, the potential risks associated with the technology are very pronounced in the perceptions of policy-makers and the general public in Africa. Given this level of concern, there is a great need for accurate, credible information. There has been much effort to communicate issues pertinent to GM crops. While notable progress is being made, inadequate knowledge and misinformation about GM technology still prevails in the region. Efforts to address concerns include: developing national communication strategies, open discussions, training and supporting efficient communicators, developing and using effective messages and Information, Education, Communication (IEC) materials, and using study tours to allow key stakeholders to directly observe GM crops in the field. Ensuring the presence of appropriate biosafety regulatory systems, policies, legal instruments and decision-making processes is critical for the safe deployment of GM crops (Sengooba *et al.*, 2009), as well as for meeting international obligations. Public policy with regard to the deployment of GM crops must be guided by the most accurate and objective scientific advice available.

With a large number of GM crops currently under development in Africa it is evident that regulatory authorities in the continent will continue receiving applications for GM trials and/or environmental releases. In order to be able to effectively evaluate these applications, it is imperative that they have access to relevant information and appropriate training. For this to be possible, efforts have to be made to provide as much information as possible regarding GMOs, and training on how to evaluate them.

Acknowledgments

Dennis Obonyo and Lilian Nfor are grateful for the support of the Academy of Science of South Africa who, with funding from the InterAcademy Panel, facilitated their participation

in the “GMOs for African Agriculture: Opportunities and Challenges” workshop. They are currently working as biosafety specialists in a major biosafety capacity-building project for sub-Saharan Africa, implemented through a partnership between the ICGBE and the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation.

References

- Ahmad, A., Wilde, G.E., Whitworth, R.J. & Zolnerowich, G. 2006. Effect of corn hybrids expressing the coleopteran-specific cry3Bb1 protein for corn rootworm control on aboveground insect predators. *Journal of Economic Entomology*, 99: 1085-1095.
- Al-Deeb, M.A., Wilde, G.E. & Higgins, R.A. 2001. No effect of *Bacillus thuringiensis* corn and *Bacillus thuringiensis* on the predator *Orius insidiosus* (Hemiptera: Anthocoridae). *Environmental Entomology*, 30: 625-629.
- Ammann, K. 2005. Effects of biotechnology on biodiversity: herbicide-tolerant and insect-resistant crops. *Trends in Biotechnology*, 23: 388-394.
- Antonio, L.C. & Duke, O.S. 2006. The current status and environmental impacts of glyphosate-resistant crops: A review. *Journal of Environmental Quality*, 35: 1633-1658.
- Bai, Y.Y., Jiang, M.X. & Cheng, J. A. 2005. Effects of transgenic Cry1Ab rice pollen on fitness of *Propylea japonica* (Thunberg). *Journal of Pest Science*, 78, 123-128.
- Bates, S.L., Zhao, J., Roush, R.T. & Shelton, A.M. 2005. Insect resistance management in GM crops: past present and future. *Nature Biotechnology*, 23: 57-62.
- Bernal, J.S., Grisct, J.G. & Gillogly, P.O. 2002. Impacts of developing on *Bt* maize intoxicated hosts on fitness parameters of a stem borer parasitoid. *Journal of Entomological Science*, 37: 27-40.
- Betz, F.S., Hammond, B.G. & Fuchs, R.L. 2000. Safety and advantages of *Bacillus thuringiensis*-protected plants to control insect pests. *Regulatory Toxicology and Pharmacology*, 32: 156-173.
- Brookes, G. & Barfoot, P. 2006. Global impact of biotech crops: Socio-economic and environmental effects in the first ten years of commercial use. *AgBioForum*, 9: 139-151.
- Candolfi, M., Brown, K., Reber, B. & Schmidli, H. 2004. A faunistic approach to assess potential side-effects of genetically modified *Bt*-corn on non-target arthropods under field conditions. *Biocontrol Science and Technology*, 14: 129-170.
- CBD (The Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety). 2000. Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD), Montreal, Canada. Available at: <http://www.cbd.int/doc/legal/cartagena-protocol-en.pdf> [Accessed 8 January 2010].
- Clark, B.W., Phillips, T.A. & Coats, J.R. 2005. Environmental fate and effects of *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt) proteins from transgenic crops: a review. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 53: 4643-4653.
- Codex Alimentarius. 2007. Codex Alimentarius Commission: Procedural Manual. FAO-WHO, Rome, Italy. Available at: <ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/010/a1472e/a1472e.pdf>. [Accessed 18 January 2010].
- Conner, A.J., Glare, T.R. & Nap, J-P. 2003. The release of genetically modified crops in the environment, Part II: Overview of ecological risk assessment. *The Plant Journal*, 33: 19-46.

- Craig, W. & Tepfer, M. 2007. Introduction to the safety/risk assessment of GM crops. *Journal of Agricultural Investment*, 5: 36-42.
- Craig, W., Tepfer, M., Degrassi, G. & Ripandelli, D. 2008. An overview of general features of risk assessments of genetically modified crops. *Euphytica*, 164: 853–880.
- Cross, F.B. 1996. Paradoxical perils of the precautionary principle. *Washington and Lee Law Review*, 53: 851–925.
- Dale, P.J. 1992. Spread of engineered genes to wild relatives. *Plant Physiology*, 100: 13-15.
- DESA UN (Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations). 2009. World population prospects: the 2008 revision. New York: Population Division of the Secretariat of DESA UN. Available at: <http://esa.un.org/unpp>. [Accessed 7 January 2010].
- Duan, J.J., Marvier, M., Huesing, J., Dively, G. & Huang, Z.Y. 2008. A meta-analysis of effects of *Bt* crops on honey bees (Hymenoptera: Apidae). *PLoS ONE* 3, e1415 (doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0001415).
- Dutton, A., Klein, H., Romeis, J. & Bigler, F. 2002. Uptake of *Bt*-toxin by herbivores on transgenic maize and consequences for the predator *Chrysoperla carnea*. *Ecological Entomology*, 27: 441-447.
- EC (European Commission). 2000. First report on the harmonisation of risk assessment procedures, 26–27 October 2007. Part II. Appendices. Brussels, Belgium: EC. Available at: http://ec.europa.eu/food/fs/sc/ssc/out84_en.pdf [Accessed 22 January 2010].
- EC (European Commission). 2003. Guidance document for the risk assessment of genetically modified plants and derived food and feed. Brussels, Belgium: EC. Available at: http://ec.europa.eu/food/fs/sc/ssc/out327_en.pdf [Accessed 16 January 2010].
- FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization, United Nations). 2003. Report of the FAO expert consultation on environmental effects of genetically modified crops 16–18 June 2003. Rome, Italy: FAO. Available at: <ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/field/006/ad690e/ad690e00.pdf> [Accessed: 19 January 2010].
- FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization, United Nations). 2009a. 1.02 billion people hungry., Rome, Italy: FAO. Available at: <http://www.fao.org/news/story/en/item/20568/icode/> [Accessed 23 December 2009].
- FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization, United Nations). 2009b. The state of food insecurity in the world: economic crises-impacts and lessons learned. Rome, Italy: FAO. Available at: <ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/012/i0876e/i0876e.pdf> [Accessed 31 December 2009].
- Firbank, L.G., Heard, M.S., Woiwod, I.P., Hawes, C., Houghton, A.J., Champion, G.T., Scott, R.J., Hill, M.O., Dewar, A.M., Squire, G.R., May, M.J., Brooks, D.R., Bohan, D.A., Daniels, R.E., Osborne, J.L., Roy, D.B., Black, H.I.J., Rothery, P. & Perry, J.N. 2003. An introduction to the farm-scale evaluations of genetically modified herbicide-tolerant crops. *Journal of Applied Ecology*, 40: 2–16.
- Fischer, R.H., de Jong, A.E.I., de Jonge, R., Frewer, L.J. & Nauta, M.J. 2005. Improving food safety in the domestic environment: the need for a transdisciplinary approach. *Risk Analysis*, 25: 503-517.
- Graef, F. 2009. Agro-environmental effects due to altered cultivation practices with genetically modified herbicide-tolerant oilseed rape and implications for monitoring: a review. *Agronomy for Sustainable Development*, 29: 31-42.

- Hagerty, A.M., Kilpatrick, A.L., Turnipseed, S.G., Sullivan, M.J. & Bridges, W.C. 2005. Predaceous arthropods and lepidopteran pests on conventional, Bollgard, and Bollgard II cotton under untreated and disrupted conditions. *Environmental Entomology*, 34: 105-114.
- Head, G. 2005. Assessing the effect of *Bt* crops on natural enemies. In: *Proceedings of the Second International Symposium on Biological Control of Arthropods*, Davos, Switzerland, 12–16 September 2005, Volume I. USDA Forest Service Publication FHTET-2005-08, Fort Collins, Colorado, USA. Available at: <http://www.bugwood.org/arthropod2005/vol1/7b.pdf> [Accessed 22 December 2009].
- Hill, A.R. & Sendashonga, C. 2003. General principles for risk assessment of living modified organisms: Lessons from chemical risk assessment. *Environmental Biosafety Research*, 2: 81–88.
- Hilbeck, A., Moar, W.J., Pusztai-Carey, M., Filippini, A. & Bigler, F. 1998a. Toxicity of *Bacillus thuringiensis* Cry1Ab toxin to the predator *Chrysoperla carnea* (Neuroptera: Chrysopidae). *Environmental Entomology*, 27: 1255-1263.
- Hilbeck, A., Baumgartner, M., Fried, P. M. & Bigler, F. 1998b. Effects of transgenic *Bacillus thuringiensis* corn-fed prey on mortality and development time of immature *Chrysoperla carnea* (Neuroptera: Chrysopidae). *Environmental Entomology*, 27: 480-487.
- Huesing, J. & English, L. 2004. The impact of *Bt* crops on the developing world. *AgBioForum*, 7: 84-95.
- Ismael, Y., Bennet, R. & Morse, S. 2002. Benefits from *Bt* cotton use by smallholder farmers in South Africa. *AgBioForum*, 5: 1-5.
- James, C. 2008. Global status of commercialized biotech/GM Crops: 2008. ISAAA Brief No. 39 – 2008. Ithaca, New York: ISAAA (International Service for the Acquisition of Agri-biotech Applications). Available at: <http://www.isaaa.org/resources/publications/briefs/39/executivesummary/default.html> [Accessed: 12 January 2010].
- Kleter, G.A, Harris, C., Stephenson, G. & Unsworth, J. 2008. Comparison of herbicide regimes and the associated potential environmental effects of glyphosate-resistant crops versus what they replace in Europe. *Pest Management Science*, 64: 479–488.
- Kohi, Y. (2006). Challenges in implementing biosafety systems in developing countries. *Proceedings of a Stakeholders' Consultative Workshop, Towards a Common Regional Policy, Regulatory and Biosafety Framework on Genetically Modified Organisms in East Africa*, Entebbe, Uganda, 12–14 September. Available at: http://www.biovisioneastfrica.com/publications/EAC_Proceedings.pdf [Accessed 23 December 2009].
- Losey, J.E., Rayor, L.S. & Carter, M.E. 1999. Transgenic pollen harms monarch larvae. *Nature*, 399: 214.
- Lozzia, G.C. 1999. Biodiversity and structure of ground beetle assemblages (Coleoptera: Carabidae) in *Bt* corn and its effects on non-target insects. *Bollettino di Zoologica Agraria e di Bachicoltura*, 31: 37-58.
- Ludy, C. & Lang, A. 2006. *Bt* maize pollen exposure and impact on the garden spider, *Araneus diadematus*. *Entomologia Experimentalis et Applicata*, 118: 145-156.
- Marvier, M., McCreedy, C., Regetz, J. & Kareiva, P. 2007. A meta-analysis of effects of *Bt* cotton and maize on nontarget invertebrates. *Science*, 316: 1475-1477.

Mataruka, D. 2009. Role of genetically modified crops in Africa. CBI blog, Washington DC: Council for Biotechnology Information, USA. Available at: <http://www.whyybiotech.com/?p=915#more-915> [Accessed 22 December 2009].

Morse, S., Bennet, R.M. & Ismael, Y. 2005. Genetically modified insect resistance in cotton: some farm-level economic impacts in India. *Crop Protection*, 24: 433-410.

Naranjo, S. 2009. *Bt* crops and invertebrate non-target effects – revisited. Information Systems for Biotechnology News Report. Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. Available at: <http://www.isb.vt.edu/news/2009/Dec09.pdf>.

Nickson, T.E. 2008. Planning environmental risk assessment for genetically modified crops: problem formulation for stress-tolerant crops. *Plant Physiology*, 147: 494-502.

Nuffield Council on Bioethics. 2003. The use of genetically modified crops in developing countries: a follow-up discussion paper. London. Available at: http://www.nuffieldbioethics.org/fileLibrary/pdf/GM_Crops_Discussion_Paper_2004.pdf [Accessed 8 January 2010].

Obonyo, D.N. 2009. Tritrophic interactions between parasitoids, lepidopteran stem borers and *Bt* maize. PhD thesis, University of Nairobi, Kenya.

OECD-FAO (2009). Agricultural outlook 2009–2018. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) of the United Nations. Available at: <http://www.agri-outlook.org/dataoecd/2/31/43040036.pdf> [Accessed 31 December 2009].

Paarlberg, R.L. 2008. *Starved for Science: How Biotechnology is Being Kept out of Africa*. Cambridge, USA: Harvard University Press.

Perry, J.N., Ter Braak, C.J.F., Dixon, P.M., Duan, J.J., Hails, R.S. Huesken, A., Lavielle, M.C., Marvier, M., Scardi, M., Schmidt, K., Tothmeresz, B., Schaarschmidt, F. & Van der Voet, H. 2009. Statistical aspects of environmental risk assessment of GM plants for effects on non-target organisms. *Environmental Biosafety Research*, 8: 65-78.

Pilcher, C.D., Obrycki, J.J., Rice, M.E. & Lewis, L.C. 1997. Preimaginal development, survival and field abundance of insect predators on transgenic *Bacillus thuringiensis* corn. *Environmental Entomology*, 26: 446-454.

Pilcher, C.D., Rice, M.E. & Obrycki, J.J. 2005. Impact of transgenic *Bacillus thuringiensis* corn and crop phenology on five nontarget arthropods. *Environmental Entomology*, 34: 1302-1316.

Pleasant, J.M., Hellmich, R.L., Dively, G.P., Stanley-Horn, D.E., Mattila, H.R., Foster, J.E., Clark, P. & Jones, G.D. 2001. Corn pollen deposition on milkweeds in and near cornfields. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the USA*, 98: 11919-11924.

Powell, J.R., Levy-Booth, D.J., Gulden, R.H., Asbil, W.L., Campbell, R.G., Dunfield, K.E., Hamill, A.S., Hart, M.M., Lerat, S., Nurse, R.E., Pauls, K.P., Sikkema, P.H., Swanton, C.J., Trevors, J.T. & Klironomos, J.N. 2009. Effects of genetically modified, herbicide-tolerant crops and their management on soil food web properties and crop litter decomposition. *Journal of Applied Ecology*, 46: 388-396.

Prakash, C.S. 2001. The genetically modified crop debate in the context of agricultural evolution. *Plant Physiology*, 126: 8-15.

Raney, T. 2006. Economic impact of transgenic crops in developing countries. *Current Opinion in Biotechnology*, 17: 174-178.

- Raybould, A. 2006. Problem formulation and hypothesis testing for environmental risk assessments of genetically modified crops. *Environmental Biosafety Research*, 5: 119-125.
- Raybould, A. 2007. Ecological versus ecotoxicological methods for assessing the environmental risks of transgenic crops. *Plant Science*, 173: 589-602.
- Riddick, E.W., Dively, G. & Barbosa, P. 1998. Effect of a seed-mix deployment of Cry3A transgenic and nontransgenic potato on the abundance of *Lebia grandis* (Coleoptera: Carabidae) and *Coleomegilla maculata* (Coleoptera: Coccinellidae). *Annals of the Entomological Society of America*, 91: 647-653.
- Romeis, J., Dutton, A. & Bigler, F. 2004. *Bacillus thuringiensis* toxin (Cry1Ab) has no direct effect on larvae of the green lacewing *Chrysoperla carnea* (Stephens) (Neuroptera: Chrysopidae). *Journal of Insect Physiology*, 50: 175-183.
- Sears, M.K., Stanley-Horn, D.E., Oberhauser, K.S., Pleasants, J.M., Mattila, H.R., Siegfried, B.D. & Dively, G.P. 2001. Impact of *Bt* corn pollen on monarch butterfly populations: A risk assessment. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the USA*, 98: 11937-11942.
- Sehnal, F. & Drobnik, J. (Eds). 2009. White book. Genetically modified crops. EU regulations and research experience from the Czech republic. Biology Centre of the Academy of Sciences of the Czech Republic, České Budejovice, Czech Republic. Available at: <http://forskarbloggen.typepad.com/files/white-book-on-gmo.pdf> [Accessed 30 November 2009].
- Sengooba, T., Grumet, R., Hancock, J., Zawedde, B., Kitandu, L., Weebadde, C., Karembu, M., Kenya, E., Meredia, K., Nampala, P., Ochanda, J.O., Quemada, H. & Rubindamayugi, M. 2009. Biosafety education relevant to genetically engineered crops for academic and non-academic stakeholders in East Africa. *Electronic Journal of Biotechnology* 12. Available at: <http://www.ejbiotechnology.cl/content/vol12/issue1/full/6/index.html> [Accessed 23 December 2009].
- Sisterson, M.S., Biggs, R.W., Manahrtdt, N.M., Carriere, Y., Dennehy, T.J. & Tabashnik, B.E. 2007. Effects of transgenic *Bt* cotton on insecticide use and abundance of two generalist predators. *Entomologia Experimentalis et Applicata*, 124: 305-311.
- Squire, G.R., Brooks, D.R., Bohan, D.A., Champion, G.T., Daniels, R.E., Houghton, A.J., Hawes, C., Heard, M.S., Hill, M.O., May, M.J., Osborne, J.L., Perry, J.N., Roy, D.B., Woiwod, I.P. & Firbank, L.G. 2003. On the rationale and interpretation of the farm-scale evaluations of genetically modified herbicide-tolerant crops. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London - Biological Sciences*, 358: 1779-1799.
- Stanley-Horn, D.E., Dively, G.P., Hellmich, R.L., Mattila, H.R., Sears, M.K., Rose, R., Jesse, L.C. H., Losey, J.E., Obrycki, J.J. & Lewis L. 2001. Assessing the impact of Cry1Ab-expressing corn pollen on monarch butterfly larvae in field studies. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the USA*, 98: 11931-11936.
- Suter II, G.W. 2006. *Ecological Risk Assessment*, 2nd volume. Boca Raton, FL, USA: CRC Press.
- Sweet, J., Simpson, E., Law, J. Lutman, P., Berry, K. Payne, R., Champion, G.M., May, G.M., Walker, K., Wightman P. & Lainsbury, M. 2004. Botanical and rotational implications of genetically modified herbicide tolerance in winter oilseed rape and sugar beet (BRIGHT Project). Project Report No. 353. Agriculture and Horticulture Development Board, Kenilworth, UK. Available at: http://www.hgca.com/document.aspx?fn=load&media_id=1454&publicationId=1805 [Accessed 8 January 2010].
- Thies, J.E. & Devare, M.H. 2007. An ecological assessment of transgenic crops. *Journal of Development Studies*, 43: 97-129.

USA EPA (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency). 1998. Guidelines for ecological risk assessment. Risk Assessment Forum, Washington, DC: EPA. Available at: <http://oaspub.epa.gov/eims/eimsapi.dispdetail?deid=12460> [Accessed 8 January 2010].

Vitale, J., Harvey, G., Greenplate, J., Abdennadher, M. & Traoré, O. 2008. Second-generation Bt cotton field trials in Burkina Faso: analyzing the potential benefits to West African farmers. *Crop Science*, 48: 1958-1966.

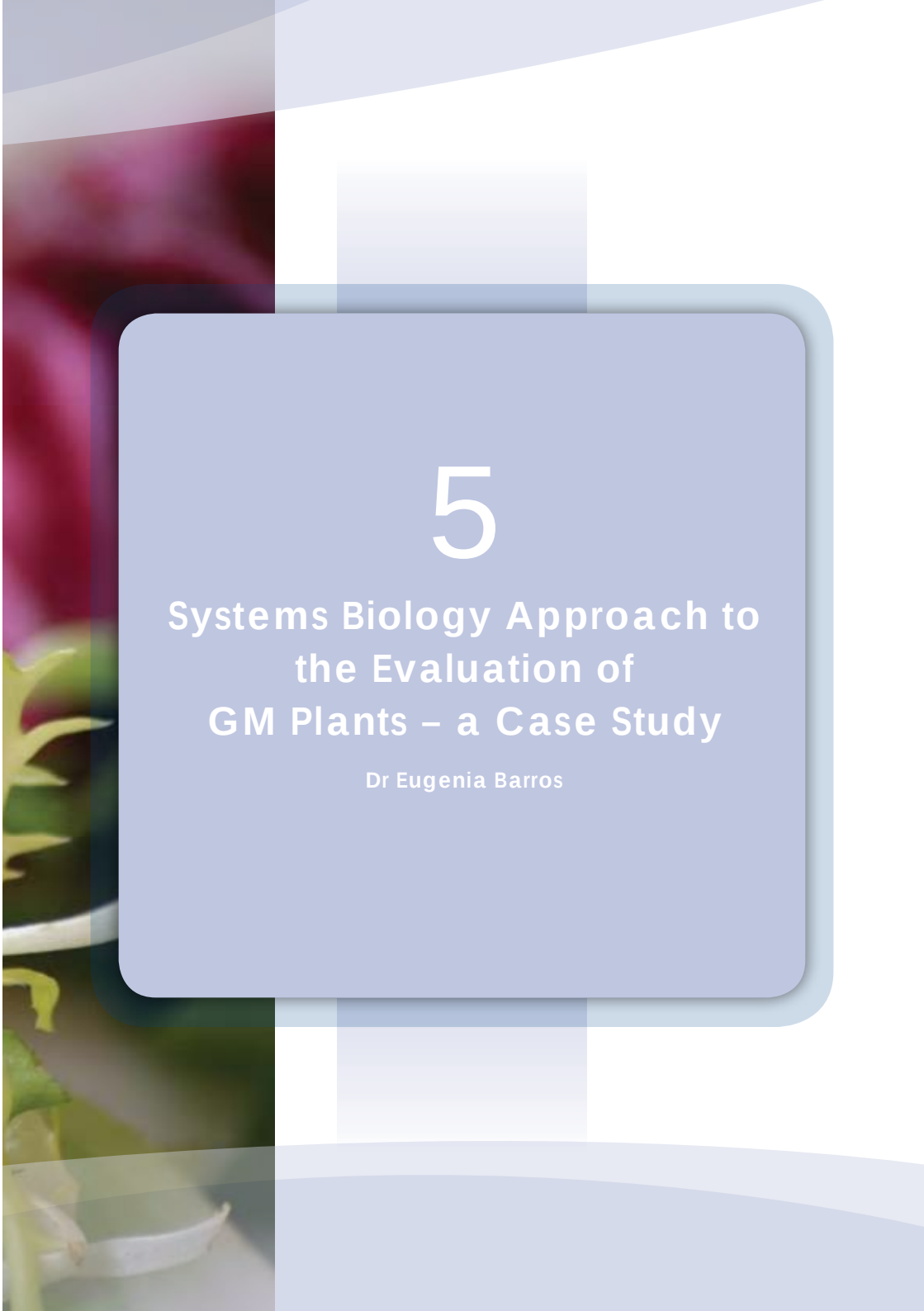
WHO (World Health Organisation). 1995. Application of risk analysis to food standards issues. Report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Consultation, Geneva, Switzerland, 13-17 March 1995. Available at: <http://www.fao.org/docrep/008/ae922e/ae922e00.htm> [Accessed 22 January 2010].

Wolfenbarger, L.L., Naranjo, S.E., Lundgren, J.G., Bitzer, R.J. & Watrud, L.S. 2008. Bt crop effects on functional guilds of non-target arthropods: a meta-analysis. *PLoS ONE*, 3(5): e2118. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0002118.

WTO (World Trade Organisation). 2009. Risk assessment in the international food safety policy arena: can the multilateral institutions encourage unbiased outcomes? Staff Working Paper ERS-2009-01, Economic Research and Statistics Division, WTO, Geneva, Switzerland. Available at: http://www.wto.org/english/res_e/reser_e/ersd200901_e.pdf [Accessed 18 January 2009].

Wu, K.M. & Guo, Y.Y. (2005). The evolution of cotton pest management practices in China. *Annual Review of Entomology*, 50: 31-52.

Xia, J.Y., Cui-Jin, J., Ma, L.H., Dong, S.L. & Cui, X.F. 1999. The role of transgenic Bt cotton in integrated insect pest management. *Acta Gossypii Sinica*, 11: 57-64.



5

Systems Biology Approach to the Evaluation of GM Plants – a Case Study

Dr Eugenia Barros

SYSTEMS BIOLOGY APPROACH TO THE EVALUATION OF GM PLANTS – A CASE STUDY

DR EUGENIA BARROS

Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR), Biosciences, Meiring Naudé Road, Brummeria, Pretoria, 0001, South Africa

Abstract

A common element in the assessment of food safety of transgenic crops is centred on a comparative analytical evaluation with the conventionally bred crop plant assuming that these products have a history of safe use. This complies with the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) principle of substantial equivalence. Non-targeted analytical approaches of gene, transcript, protein and metabolite levels are, however, the methods of choice to investigate the physiology of genetically modified (GM) plants as comprehensively as possible, thus increasing the chances of detecting unintended effects. In South Africa, the use of non-targeted analytical approaches to validate the concept of substantial equivalence in GMO plants is being investigated. While the results of the first study have been submitted for a scientific publication, this report summarises some of the outcomes of a specific data set. This case study evaluated the effect of genetic modification and environmental variation of one *Bt* maize cultivar grown in one location over three years (seasons) with its non-GM maize counterpart. Four non-targeted methods were used. The study showed that the variation observed in the two maize lines was mainly due to environmental factors.

1 Introduction

In the early stages of production and commercialisation of foods derived from GM plants, international consensus was reached regarding the principles of food-safety evaluation. The concept of substantial equivalence became the starting point of the safety evaluation framework based on the idea that existing foods can serve as a basis to compare the

properties of GM foods with the appropriate counterpart (Kuiper *et al.*, 2001). However, the controversy regarding GM plants and their potential impact on human health and the environment have led to the development of additional methods for risk assessment. Risk assessment focuses on potential adverse effects which could result from unintended effects of genetic modifications. Unintended effects can also occur in conventional breeding. The best way to detect unintended effects is through non-targeted analysis by using profiling techniques. These techniques allow screening of potential changes in the physiology of the modified host plant at different cellular integration levels that include the genome level, during gene expression and protein translation and at the metabolic pathway level (Rischer & Oksman-Caldentey, 2006). Other factors, such as genetic characteristics (cultivar, isogenic lines), agronomic factors (soil, fertilisers) and environmental influences (location, weather, stress), also need to be considered during GM *versus* non-GM evaluations because they could contribute to some alteration that is not necessarily due to the genetic modification. There is therefore a need to use some of these profiling techniques to evaluate a GM plant *versus* a non-GM plant under different conditions to be able to determine their application in future risk assessment evaluations as more complex genetic traits are introduced into plants.

2 Targeted *versus* non-targeted approach to detect unintended effects

The evaluation of GM plants using targeted analysis looks at the compositional variation in the GM plant compared to the non-GM counterpart using a selection of analytes of interest. These key compounds have been determined by international standards to form the basis of substantial equivalence. The substantial equivalence approach was adopted by regulatory bodies to ensure that GM plants and foods are as safe and nutritious as their conventional counterparts (Kuiper and Kleter, 2003). The analytes or key compounds that are included in the baseline analysis of targeted studies include proteins, carbohydrates, fats, vitamins and other nutritional/anti-nutritional compounds that may affect the nutritional

value and safety of the crop (Kuiper *et al.*, 2001). The selection of compounds may be limited to a restricted number representing essential biochemical/physiological pathways in the plant. The targeted approach has many limitations with respect to unknown anti-nutrients and natural toxins. Furthermore, any unforeseen, unintended effects of the genetic modification may escape detection using the targeted approach. Thus analyses using non-targeted profiling technologies have been developed that allow the screening of potential changes in the physiology of the plant at different cellular integration levels that include gene expression, protein translation and at the metabolic pathway level. These system biology technologies are also known as “omics” technologies, which refer to the comprehensive analysis of biological systems. In this case study four profiling technologies were used to evaluate one GM maize (*Bt*) and its non-GM counterpart. The effect of genetic modification and the environmental variation were included in the study by growing the two maize cultivars in one location over three growing seasons.

3 Data analysis

Profiling techniques generate a large amount of data even when a limited number of samples are used. To obtain a meaningful analysis of the profiles from the GM maize and its non-GM counterpart, the first stage of data analysis took into account all the compounds at once to give an overall view of the data. The multivariate analysis used in this study to identify the main sources of variation in the data set was the Principal Component Analysis (PCA). This technique reduces multidimensional data sets to smaller numbers of new variables called components that still retain most of the variation in the data. Once the major sources of variation are identified the next step is to examine each component individually using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), taking into account all the relevant features of the experimental design (Davies, 2009). Compounds are then listed in order of significant level.

3.1 Transcriptomics

The microarray technology is the most common approach for gene expression profiling. cDNA microarrays have been used to investigate changes in gene expression during maize kernel development. One drawback of cDNA microarrays is the false discovery rate that results from cross-hybridisation among family members of the plant being studied. By contrast, oligo arrays can achieve hybridisation patterns of transcript levels relatively accurately and there are a few that are commercially available. The microarray used in this study was obtained from the Maize Oligonucleotide Array Project (US). In total 3 541 spots were included in the data analysis and PCA results showed a separation of the samples according to season and genotype. When the drivers of variation were investigated using ANOVA, the largest variation was due to year, whereas a much lower variation was due to genotype. This suggests that the variation found between GM and non-GM maize at the gene expression level was not significant.

3.2 Proteomics

The main approach currently used in protein profiling studies is two-dimensional (2-D) gel electrophoresis. This technology allows the comparative analyses of protein patterns, changes in protein concentrations or post-translational modifications triggered by environmental factors or genetic modification. There are, at present, two major shortcomings with this technology: the first is that only highly expressed proteins can be detected in a complex protein mixture and the second is that there is not sufficient protein sequence data for identification purposes. The protein profiles generated by 2-D electrophoresis of the two maize cultivars showed that 714 proteins were included in data analysis, and PCA results showed that the samples could be separated according to season and genotype. The ANOVA tests showed that the effect of year was stronger than the effect of genotype. There was a very slight separation between genotypes which suggests that no significant variation was observed between GM and non-GM maize at the protein level.

3.3 Metabolomics

The analysis of plant metabolites is generally complicated due to their highly complex nature and vast chemical diversity. There is a range of technologies that can be used to identify individual compounds that could represent alterations in the content of cellular compounds such as sugars, fats, acids and other metabolites. These include Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR), Gas Chromatography–Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS), Liquid Chromatography–Mass Spectrometry and Fourier-transform (near) infrared spectroscopy. Both ^1H -NMR and GC-MS were the metabolite profiling techniques used in this case study.

^1H -NMR fingerprinting plays a central role in dissecting the relationship between sequence and biological function. Although there is incomplete coverage of the plant metabolome, ^1H -NMR was sensitive enough to produce metabolic profiles of the two maize cultivars (15 500 complex data points were examined). Thirty-six compounds were identified for data analysis and the results showed a separation among the three seasons but no visible separation between the genotypes (GM and non-GM).

GC-MS metabolite profiling provides valuable information on the structural identity of compounds, but limitations of this technology include its restriction to low molecular weight constituents and the range of detectable analytes that is dependent on the choice of solvents used in metabolite extraction. Using GC-MS, 120 compounds were included in the data analysis and a separation was observed for seasons and for genotypes. The effect of season was greater than that of genotype.

4 CONCLUSION

The application of systems biology as a multidisciplinary approach to validate the concept of substantial equivalence as part of the safety assessment of GM plants can provide relevant information regarding changes in gene expression and associated protein and metabolite derivatives as a result of genetic modification. The non-selective comparison of

GM maize with its non-GM counterpart offers unlimited possibilities for the identification of unintended effects. In this “case study” non-targeted molecular profiling technologies were used to provide insight into the extent of variation in the maize transcriptome, proteome and metabolome by analysing two maize genotypes grown in the same location in three different years. The results showed that the variation observed was mainly caused by growing season and the associated environmental factors and was not due to genotype. Although the environment was the dominant source of variation, no common drivers of variation could be identified in this dataset. The differences that were observed between the *Bt* maize and the non-GM counterpart using the four technologies were not statistically significant. Since only two maize lines were used the possibility of identifying differences due to natural variation was not part of the scope of this study.

This study also highlighted the possibilities, as well as the challenges, of profiling analysis for food-safety evaluation. A big challenge of the “omics” technologies is the vast amount of data that they generate, making it extremely complex to evaluate individual GM lines and making a meaningful interpretation difficult. Other challenges include the many gaps related to the number of genes for which a function has been identified and the limited coverage of the proteome and metabolome. These technologies still need to be validated before they can be used for routine safety assessment. They are not intended to replace existing analyses but to confirm and supplement current targeted analytical approaches.

References

- Davies, H. 2009. A role for “omics” technologies in food-safety assessment. *ScienceDirect*. Available at: doi:10.1016/j.foodcont.2009.03.002.
- Kuiper, H.A., Kleter, G.A., Noteborn, P.J.M. & Kok, E.J. 2001. Assessment of the food safety issues related to genetically modified foods. *The Plant Journal*, 27: 503-528.
- Kuiper, H.A. & Kleter, G.A. 2003. The scientific basis for risk assessment and regulation of genetically modified foods. *Trends in Food Science and Technology*, 14: 277-293.
- Rischer, H. & Oksman-Caldentey, K.M. 2006. Unintended effects in genetically modified crops: revealed by metabolomics? *Trends in Biotechnology*, 24: 102-104.





6

Commercialisation of a GM Potato (A Case Study – Lessons Learned)

Mr Gurling Bothma

COMMERCIALISATION OF A GM POTATO (A CASE STUDY – LESSONS LEARNED)

MR GURLING BOTHMA

Agricultural Research Council-Roodeplaat VOPI, Pretoria, 0001, South Africa

1 Why we did the project

The potato tuber moth (PTM), *Phthorimaea operculella* (Zeller), is a serious insect pest of potatoes in South Africa (Visser *et al.*, 2003; Visser, 2007) and has become an increasingly important pest on tobacco and tomato as well (Van Vuuren *et al.*, 1998; Gilboa & Podoler, 1994). Damage has also been reported on eggplant and other solanaceous crops and weeds (Rahalkar *et al.*, 1985). It is an introduced pest, originating from South America (Visser, 2005), and is therefore not a native component of the South African ecosystem. The larvae attack potato plants and tubers under the soil and in stores, and are responsible for losses of up to R40 million per annum to the South African potato industry (Visser & Schoeman, 2004). Commercial producers rely on insecticide application for PTM, generally applied at weekly intervals. Applications start when the first moths appear and the insecticide is applied eight to twelve times per season. Control is not always satisfactory and damage levels vary between seasons and years, depending largely on the survival of overwintering moths and their re-infestation of newly planted fields (Visser, 2004). No insecticide is registered against the PTM in South Africa under storage conditions. This includes *Bt* sprays, none of which are registered for use against PTM either on foliage or tubers (Nel *et al.*, 2002). The only control strategy that gives consistently good control against the PTM is the use of genetically modified (GM) insect-resistant potatoes containing the CryIIa1 gene (Visser, 2004). Because PTM in South Africa occurs outside of its natural distribution range (Visser, 2005), has demonstrated potential to feed on and therefore threaten other species (potatoes, other solanaceous crops, and other wild solanaceous species), and causes economic harm (Visser & Schoeman, 2004), this pest fits the definition of an

COMMERCIALISATION OF A GM POTATO (A CASE STUDY – LESSONS LEARNED)

Mr Gurling Bothma

invasive species. Therefore attempts to control this pest are consistent not only with good agricultural practice, but also with the objectives of the Biodiversity Act.

Another reason for the project is to demonstrate the feasibility of efforts led by the public sector and developing country institutions to make biotechnology products available in Africa. The PTM-resistant potato could be one of the first public sector-developed products to be approved and deployed in a developing country. Largely due to the high cost of developing a transgenic crop, only the large multinational companies have had the financial resources to pursue the commercial development of GM crops. Many laboratories at universities and other research organisations have produced GMOs. However, to put the GMO through all the regulatory hoops and produce a regulatory dossier with all the evidence to demonstrate that the GMO is not harmful is a costly affair. Therefore many of these products will never be commercially released. Proper commercial development of this product will benefit all potato farmers in South Africa. The technology is in the tuber, and the benefit is not scale-dependent.

A further aim is to demonstrate the value of developing country involvement in generating safety assessment data, namely the scientific contribution and at a reduced cost. This would result in the building of capacity of public sector institutions in commercialising GM crops.

2 What was done?

The following product commercialisation approach was followed.

2.1 Technology and Product Development

First field tests had to be conducted under normal agricultural conditions to demonstrate the proof of concept. Multi-location field trials in the major growing regions were conducted over a number of growing seasons to select the ideal clone and for the bulking-up of material.

2.2 Regulatory File Development

Food-safety analysis was performed and environmental studies done.

Intellectual property ownership of product components had to be assessed and “freedom-to-operate” and licensing of the potato had to be done. In the case of this potato some of these licensing issues still have to be finalised.

2.3 Marketing and Distribution

A delivery strategy had to be developed that would fit into the existing potato industry in South Africa. Discussions were held with seed producers who had historically supplied small-scale farmers (emerging farmers) with seed potatoes. They were quite keen to distribute the GM potatoes. Initially, due to the small amounts of seed, farmer participatory trials with small-scale producers were planned.

Extension will have to be done to assist farmers to use the technology safely and according to permit regulations. Standard farming extension will also have to be included in this package.

A stewardship and liability strategy was developed.

2.4 Outreach and Communication

Public communication of the benefits and impacts of the potato was started. However, due to budget constraints this part of the project was scaled down. It was also decided that it would perhaps be more beneficial if the potatoes were in the pipeline before more substantial communication efforts were undertaken. Creating expectations of a product that may never be commercialised can also have a negative impact on the consumer. On the whole the retail industry was not opposed to the new potato, but there were fears that organisations would mobilise customers to boycott the product or their stores, thus affecting profits.

2.5 Documentation of Socioeconomic Assessments

The Spunta G2 potatoes offer farmers an alternative to the use of pesticides for controlling potato tuber moth in the field and in storage. The Spunta G2 potatoes can be safely stored without any chemical treatment for tuber moth, even under heavy moth infestations. Socioeconomic studies have shown that smallholder farmers lose a considerable amount of their stored potatoes to the potato tuber moth and that chemical treatments are used in attempts to prevent these losses. Furthermore, some of these chemicals are not approved for use on potatoes. A study was undertaken with commercial farmers as well as five small-scale farmer communities. A few commercial farmers were against the technology as they believed it would interfere with their exports. Some welcomed the potato and others did not see that it would be beneficial to them. The small-scale farmers' major concerns revolved around more basic issues, such as land availability and other input constraints.

3 Summary of data needed for the regulatory dossier

3.1 Agronomic Performance

We had to demonstrate that the GM Spunta G2 potato performed as well as the standard Spunta under various farming conditions. The potato was tested in six potato-growing regions for a number of seasons. Resistance to tuber moth under diffused light store conditions was also examined and found to be excellent. The GM potato performed as well as the standard potato and gave 100% protection against PTM.

3.2 Molecular Data

We demonstrated that we had a single copy gene insert in Spunta G2 without any vector backbone or other additional DNA fragments. The inserted gene, as well as about 1 Kb on either side of the inserted gene, was sequenced to demonstrate that the gene itself was intact and that no new reading frames were generated. The levels of expression of the *Bt* protein were also determined in the leaves and tubers.

3.3 Food and Feed Safety

Both the transformed and non-transformed Spunta potatoes were analysed for nutrient composition and it was found that they were identical. Solanine levels in the tubers were also determined to see if there were any increases in levels. Toxicity tests were performed by feeding mice a large single dose of the *Bt* protein, but no ill effects were seen. A whole food-feeding study with rats was conducted over 90 days and a number of parameters were measured (e.g. growth, organ weight, blood chemistry) and no differences could be determined in the various test groups.

3.4 Environmental Safety

A study in three of the trial locations was conducted over a number of years on the arthropod populations that inhabit the potato plots. Arthropods found above the canopy, within the canopy and on the ground were collected and assessed. Tens of thousands of arthropods were collected during the study and no negative impacts were found. The predation on PTM larvae and eggs was also studied, and no negative results were found.

Studies were also conducted on the soil microflora to determine whether the *Bt* protein produced in the plant affects these populations. Once again, no negative impact could be determined.

3.5 Socioeconomic Impact Data

Two surveys were conducted to attempt to shed light on the socioeconomic impact of the *Bt* potato. It is important to note that although this information is requested by the Executive Council, there are no guidelines on what kind of information is needed. We were subsequently informed that even a “desktop” study may have been sufficient. These studies are very expensive and the Executive Council should provide proper guidelines of what they require.

The two studies that were conducted were for smallholder and commercial producers were: “Smallholder potato production activities in South Africa: a socioeconomic and

COMMERCIALISATION OF A GM POTATO (A CASE STUDY – LESSONS LEARNED)

Mr Gurling Bothma

technical assessment of five cases in three provinces" and "Potential economic benefits of a genetically modified (GM) tuber moth resistant-potato variety in South Africa: an ex-ante socioeconomic evaluation for commercial producers".

Smallholder farmers indicated a range of problems, many of which might be simply and cost-effectively reduced by means of adapting existing technology to local conditions and practices. Engaging in a process of participatory and adaptive research with farmers will enable them to help optimise their potato production within their specific environment. This can be achieved by encouraging farmers, research institutions and community workers (NGOs and PDA) to work together in close collaboration. Adapting current technologies to local conditions tends to be more cost-effective than developing new technologies which, due to their generic nature, are not adapted to local conditions and might not be adopted as a result. Optimising production and storage practices within a low-input situation could help to address many pest and disease problems experienced by subsistence farmers, as many of the problems faced are management problems, exacerbated by lack of access to sufficient resources.

It appears that commercial farmers in general would agree to introduce GM potatoes into their production planning on condition that the new technology significantly increases their profits. The GM potato with PTM-resistant genes might not have the expected rapid adoption rate among farmers, since most farmers have PTM infestation under control at a reasonable cost.

3.6 Post-Approval Stewardship Plan

An 80-page post-approval stewardship plan was developed that could be implemented if approval were granted.

4 Where are we now?

The Regulatory Dossier was compiled and submitted with an application for general release to the office of the Registrar of the GMO Act in 2008. The Executive Council assessed the application and decided not to grant a general release permit in July 2009. The Executive Council cited 11 points for this rejection. The Agricultural Research Council (ARC), with support from their partners, decided to appeal this decision on the grounds that the reasons provided did not warrant a rejection. This process is still in progress at the time of writing, but it is hoped that the appeal process will have been completed by mid-2010. The project has therefore been on hold since 2008. If the appeal is successful, planting material for the farmer participatory trials will only be available at the end of 2011. The project is at a point where it is unable to continue unless we manage to get permission to do “farmer participatory trials”.

5 What have we learned?

South Africa has the expertise to assess GM products. However, there are still gaps in this expertise. Many of the tests that were to be performed in South Africa, e.g. testing for the solanine content in potato tubers, soil microbiological work, protein production and antibody production, could not be done here. Either it had not been done before and/or no-one could be found who was willing to develop the methodology or perform the tests. At times the fees that laboratories wanted to charge to develop tests were far higher than those charged in the US. One possible reason for the lack of testing facilities is that there is no demand for these tests and therefore the expertise has not been developed. However, the fieldwork, animal-feeding studies, molecular analysis and food nutritional analysis, for example, could be done at a reasonable cost. Although there is in general a large scientific pool of expertise in South Africa that would be able to be involved in GMO evaluation, research institutions and groups are not necessarily set up to perform these tests.

COMMERCIALISATION OF A GM POTATO (A CASE STUDY – LESSONS LEARNED)

Mr Gurling Bothma

Stakeholder buy-in from the early stages is essential for success. Stakeholders should be part of the team from start to finish. However, stakeholders can have a change of heart during the project, which can have a severe negative impact on the project. Every attempt should be made to keep communication lines open and to keep all the stakeholders on board. Stakeholders who have inside information about the project can become major liabilities if they decide to withdraw from the project.

Adequate funding is essential. The process of developing and bringing a GM crop to the market can be expensive and can take a very long time. Therefore funders must make long-term commitments as the project can stagnate for years while regulatory authorities make decisions that impact on the project. Unexpected or unplanned expenses may arise during the project which can have severe implications if no additional funding can be sourced.

Intellectual property issues should be addressed before the project begins or as soon as possible after the project has started. Years of work can be wasted if the IP-holders decide not to allow their property to be used for commercial purposes.

Post-release stewardship is a very difficult but important aspect of such a project. Research organisations typically do not have the resources and mechanisms to implement stewardship programmes. Therefore it is essential to have industry or trade partners with the resources and skills to implement the stewardship campaign. These partners should be part of the team from the early stages of the project.

6 Final comments

Before embarking on the long journey of developing and commercialising a GM product, one must ask the following questions:

- Is it only an academic exercise?
- Is it worth the time and effort?

- Is there real benefit to anyone?
- Is it a case of “we have an answer, let us find a problem”?
- Is the government serious about using GM technology and will they create an enabling environment?
- Can public organisations really compete with large multinationals?

I suspect that few research organisations are totally truthful about the answers they will give to the above questions. Financial pressures and the push for publications may encourage research groups to develop GM crops that will have “great benefit” for certain communities, but will ultimately end up as academic exercises.

It is important that all serious role-players should evaluate what they want to achieve, assessing the chances of success and, if successful, how will the product be rolled out for the beneficiaries. Only the larger multi-institutional and multidisciplinary groups stand any chance of success. Expertise and resources must be pooled and directed to a few “good” projects. The South African authorities appear to be becoming more conservative and less keen on granting permits. If this is the case, it may make it more difficult for other African countries to embrace this potentially beneficial technology.

REFERENCES

Gilboa, S. & Podoler, H. 1994. Population dynamics of the potato tuber moth on processing tomatoes in Israel. *Entomologia Experimentalis et Applicata*, 72: 197-206.

Nel, A., Krause, M. & Khelawanlall, N. 2002. A guide for the control of plant pests (39th edition). Pretoria: Directorate: Agricultural Productions Inputs, Department of Agriculture.

Rahalkar, G.W., Harwalkar, M.R. & Rananavare, H.D. 1985. *Phthorimaea operculella*. In: Singh, P. & Moore, R.F. (Eds.). *Handbook of Insect Rearing*, Chapter 2: 443-451. Amsterdam: Elsevier.

Van Vuuren, J.J., Bennett, A. & Bennett, A.L. 1998. Oviposition site preferences of potato tuber moth, *Phthorimaea operculella* (Zeller) (Lepidoptera: Gelechiidae), a pest on tobacco, *Nicotiana tabacum* L. (Solanaceae). *African Entomology*, 6: 177-183.

Visser, D. & Schoeman, A.S. 2004. Flight activity patterns of the potato tuber moth, *Phthorimaea operculella* (Zeller) (Lepidoptera: Gelechiidae). *African Entomology*, 12: 135-139.

Visser, D. 2004. The potato tuber moths, *Phthorimaea operculella* (Zeller), in South Africa: potential

COMMERCIALISATION OF A GM POTATO (A CASE STUDY – LESSONS LEARNED)

Mr Gurling Bothma

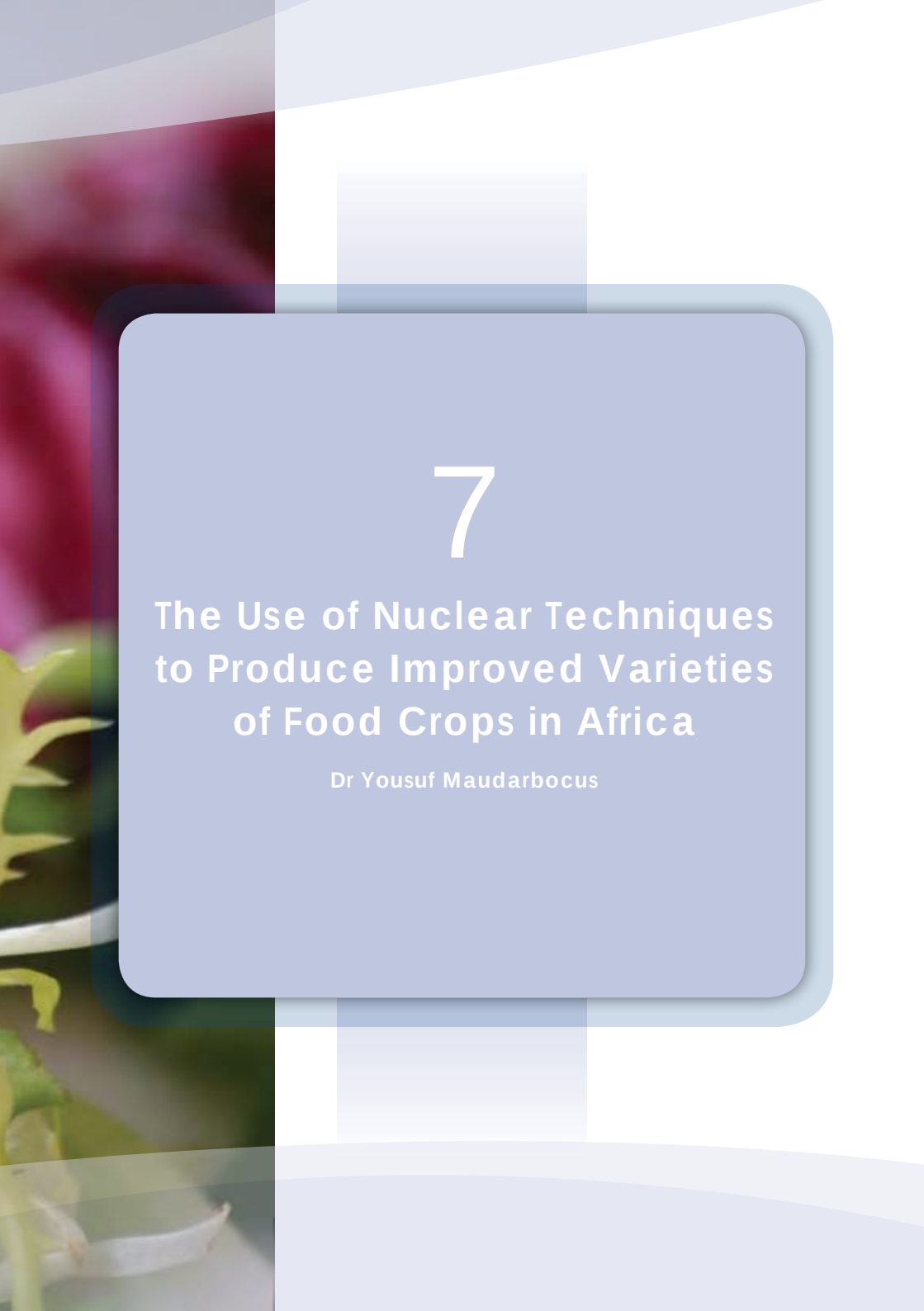
control measures in non-refrigerated store environments. PhD Thesis, University of Pretoria.

Visser, D. 2005. Guide to potato pests and their natural enemies in South Africa. Pretoria: Agricultural Research Council, 105 p.

Visser, D. 2007. Potato tuber moth damage increases dramatically in 2007 (in Afrikaans). *Chips*, June-Aug: 34-36.

Visser, D., Steyn, P.J. & Le Roux, S.M. 2003. Occurrence and control of pests. In: Niederwieser, J.G. (Ed.), *Guide to Potato Production in South Africa*. Pretoria: CPD Printers, pp. 153-173.





7

The Use of Nuclear Techniques to Produce Improved Varieties of Food Crops in Africa

Dr Yousuf Maudarbocus

THE USE OF NUCLEAR TECHNIQUES TO PRODUCE IMPROVED VARIETIES OF FOOD CROPS IN AFRICA

DR YOUSUF MAUDARBOCUS

Fellow of the Mauritius Academy of Science & Technology

1 Techniques available to produce GMOs

1.1 Recombinant DNA Technology

A genetically modified organism (GMO) is an organism whose genetic material has been altered. Recombinant DNA technology makes use of DNA molecules from different sources which are transferred into the genome of an organism giving it modified or new genes. In general, GMOs are produced to endow them with new useful traits.

However, when no gene, or genes, can be found in the available gene pool to introduce the desired trait into a particular plant, plant breeders have no obvious alternative but to attempt mutation induction.

Mutation can be induced artificially in two principal ways:

- 1) by the use of chemical agents
- 2) by radiation techniques.

As these methods work in entirely different ways, they are really complementary.

1.2 Chemical Methods

Chemicals, such as sodium azide and ethyl methylsulphonate, are used to induce mutations in plants. However, some plant genes are more easily mutated by radiation.

1.3 Nuclear Techniques

Artificial induction of mutation by ionising radiation dates back to the late 1920s. Initial attempts used X-rays, subsequently replaced by gamma and neutron radiation. Currently, gamma radiation is most widely used.

The irradiation of seeds speeds up the natural process of evolution of the plant's DNA. Thus new varieties of crops can be produced with characteristics tailored to a particular need.

The seeds are normally subjected to a range of radiation doses to produce genetic variation. The plant with the desired trait is selected following field trials. The development of plant cell and tissue culture over the past decades has made it possible to transfer part of the breeding work from the field to the laboratory.

2 The importance of breeding new plant varieties

Food security is one of the most challenging problems facing poor countries. The production of improved varieties of food crops can contribute significantly towards alleviating malnutrition in these countries.

Important desirable properties which can be achieved through plant breeding include:

- (a) **Increased disease resistance:** This is very important, as many crops are ruined by diseases. The use of chemicals for protection may be limited by cost or concern for the environment.
- (b) **Improved lodging resistance:** Lodging is a serious problem, affecting cereal crops such as barley and durum wheat in particular. The desired properties are a reduction in plant height and a stiffer stem with at least an equal or an improved yield.
- (c) **Earlier or later maturing time:** The "earliness" of many important crop plants, such as bread wheat, rice and barley, can be improved by five to ten days, thus making

room in the field for other crops. Altering the maturing time may also allow some crops to escape drought, frost or pests.

- (d) **Improved seed characteristics:** These concern the improvement of nutritional value (protein or oil content), baking qualities, reduction of cooking time and taste.
- (e) **Improved agronomic characteristics:** These are, for example, greater heat tolerance and better adaptability to adverse soil conditions (barren or high-salinity land).
- (f) **Increased yields:** These techniques have resulted in an increase in yield of up to 45% for certain crops.

3 Mutation breeding in African countries

3.1 New Wheat Varieties in Kenya

In Kenya and other African countries wheat crops are plagued by a virulent new strain of fungus called “wheat rust”.

Using radiation-based techniques to modify crop characteristics and traits, scientists and crop researchers at the Kenya Agricultural Research Institute (KARI), working closely with the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), developed new wheat seeds over the past decade. The first mutant wheat variety, called Njoro-BW1, was released in 2001. It is tolerant to drought and uses limited rainfall efficiently. Moreover, it exhibits moderate resistance to wheat rust, has high yields and the flour is of good baking quality.

Today, Njoro-BW1 is cultivated on more than 10 000 ha in Kenya. It has become so popular among Kenyan wheat farmers that KARI’s seed unit can hardly keep up with demand.

Another high-yielding mutant, codenamed DH4, is due to be released soon.

3.2 New Sorghum and Rice Varieties in Mali

Mali's native sorghum has traits that give it some resistance to drought, but it still needs substantial rainfall for a good harvest. As sorghum production has not kept up with population growth, Malian scientists, especially at the Institut Polytechnique Rural, initiated a programme to improve the production of sorghum while conserving their essential traits. With the assistance of the IAEA, traditional varieties of sorghum were irradiated with gamma rays according to prescribed procedures. Initial field tests show increases of more than 10% in productivity.

It is worth noting that other traits of sorghum in Mali have also been altered using different gamma irradiation doses, as shown in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1: Altered traits of sorghum

Dose	Year	Traits
300 Gy	1992	Increased lodging resistance
250 Gy	1998	Earliness
100 Gy	1998	Increased panicle size, increased yield and change in grain colour

Rice has been grown in the flood plains of the Niger River for several centuries. Following irradiation of the local variety, new mutants have been developed with white colour characteristics and higher yields (> 15%). White rice in Africa fetches double the price of red; so for farmers, the colour alone means a substantial increase in income.

3.3 Sesame in Egypt

In Egypt, three mutant varieties of high-yielding, disease and insect-resistant sesame are bringing higher economic returns than standard varieties.

3.4 Cassava in Ghana

Ghana's cassava variety "Tek Bankye", with improved cooking quality, was released recently. Trials are underway to produce higher-yielding, disease-resistant cassava, with improved starch content.

3.5 Other New Radiation-Induced Varieties

Several other radiation-induced varieties of crops with improved traits, higher yield and better nutrition value, which are adaptable to harsh environments have been released. These include, among many others, finger millet and cotton in Zambia and banana in Sudan.

3.6 Ongoing Activities

Numerous research and development (R&D) activities are being carried out in African countries to develop improved varieties of various crops through the use of nuclear technology. These include the development of:

- a) A better lodging and higher-yield variety of tef in Ethiopia.
- b) An improved variety of rice at the Sokoine University of Agriculture, Morogoro, Tanzania.
- c) A disease-resistant variety of cocoa at the Cocoa Research Institute of Ghana (CRIG), Tafo, Ghana.

The cocoa swollen shoot virus (CSSV) is a major disease which has destroyed more than 40% of the cocoa production in Ghana. In fact, during the last 50 years, about 200 million cocoa trees have been destroyed in Ghana as a result of CSSV.

Buds of cocoa plants are subjected to gamma radiation at the Ghana Atomic Energy Commission (GAEC) with a view to producing new plant strains with disease-resistant

THE USE OF NUCLEAR TECHNIQUES TO PRODUCE IMPROVED VARIETIES OF FOOD CROPS IN AFRICA *Dr Yousuf Maudarbocus*

properties. Some of these new strains are being field-tested; if successful, the economic benefit to Ghana would be immense.

4 Conclusion

Nuclear techniques can help to address the issues of food security in Africa. These techniques are highly competitive in relation to non-nuclear technologies and can be used to achieve better solutions to new challenges in Africa.

Other regions have already derived huge economic benefits through the use of radiation-induced mutations.

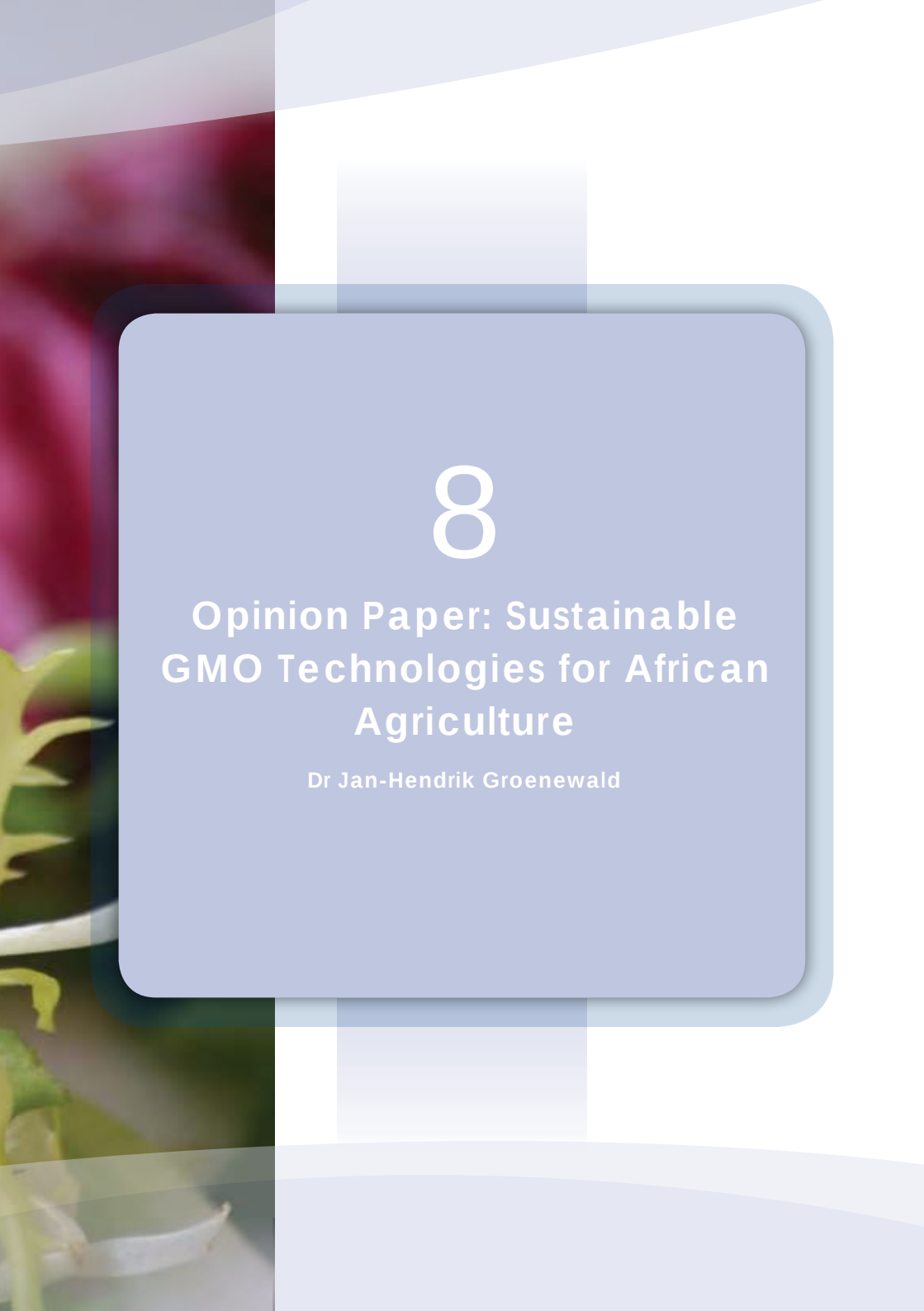
In China, up to 2005, a total of 638 mutant varieties of 42 plant species have been released, covering 9 million ha of planting area. The economic benefit derived from increased cereal production alone is estimated to be about US\$420 million a year.

In Pakistan, a mutant producing better quality and higher-yielding crops quadrupled cotton production within ten years of release (1983–1992) and now accounts for 70% of all cotton grown in the Punjab region, resulting in an economic benefit of US\$20 million a year.

In Peru's high Andes, stronger and healthier varieties of barley, grown at altitudes of up to 5 000 m, produce about 1 200 kg per hectare, that is, an increase of 50% in relation to previous varieties. This translates to an economic benefit of about US\$9 million a year.

There is no doubt that the use of nuclear techniques to produce improved varieties of food crops in Africa could contribute significantly towards alleviating the food crisis and bring about considerable economic benefits.





8

Opinion Paper: Sustainable GMO Technologies for African Agriculture

Dr Jan-Hendrik Groenewald

OPINION PAPER: SUSTAINABLE GMO TECHNOLOGIES FOR AFRICAN AGRICULTURE

DR JAN-HENDRIK GROENEWALD

Biosafety South Africa, 105 Wentworth, Somerset Links Office Park, Somerset West 7130, South Africa, hennie@biosafety.org.za

Abstract

Agricultural sustainability usually refers to agronomic sustainability, including aspects such as agronomical practices, productivity and ecological diversity – all factors that should be considered during the risk assessment of a genetically modified (GM) crop before it is released commercially. Most GM crops that have been commercialised to date were developed primarily for large-scale farming systems and would, arguably, not impart the same scale of benefit to small-scale and subsistence farmers, typical of developing countries. Therefore, to allow developing countries to derive the full potential benefits of biotech crops, we propose that, in addition to the traditional biosafety aspects mentioned above, technology developers should also more carefully consider factors such as the relevance and accessibility of a particular technology to ensure sustainability. Risk assessment and risk management play a critical role in the successful commercialisation of GM crops and should therefore be considered as an integral part of any GM research and development programme. This paper will develop these concepts and present a risk analysis framework which can be used in an R&D programme to identify, assess and mitigate potential biosafety and other deployment risks.

1 Introduction

In a discussion on the sustainability of genetically modified organisms (GMOs), it usually revolves around their sustainable use in agricultural systems, focusing predominantly on food/feed and environmental safety. Sustainability is therefore often equated to the

post-release safety of the GMO, an aspect that is regulated in all systems and is therefore carefully considered during the development and risk assessment processes. Potential socioeconomic impacts, by contrast, are currently either not regulated in many countries or are only considered at a very late stage of product development. The facts that most of the current commercial GMO crops were designed around the needs of specific markets that differ considerably from those in the developing world, and that they were not developed based on locally established priorities and competencies, resulted in GMO products that are unable to deliver positive socioeconomic impacts to many farmers in developing countries.

The sustainable adoption and use of GM technology also depend on many socioeconomic and practical constraints, which should be considered proactively in *ex ante* sustainability analyses. By integrating sustainability analyses, including biosafety and socioeconomic assessments, into a GMO research and development pipeline, the development of both safe and economically sustainable products could be ensured. Such an approach should also improve the overall efficiency of the innovation system because it will help to ensure the development of safe, relevant and accessible products that are truly sustainable.

2 Why focus on sustainable GM technologies?

Obvious answers to this question will revolve around the post-release endurance, safety, diversity and productivity aspects of the GM crop and its receiving environment, but it also has an important developmental or strategic aspect. To successfully unlock the potential of GM technology, it is important to realise that the technology in itself is not a product. GM technology should be packaged into a final product that, in addition to the sustainability aspects listed above, is also relevant and accessible to ensure adoption and continued use. Defining sustainability in this holistic way and integrating these considerations from an early stage into a GM research and development programme will not only help with the development of safe, sustainable products, but will also improve the efficiency of the innovation process because flawed products can be discarded at an early stage.

3 Defining the sustainability of GMOs

Sustainability implies safety and the safety of GMOs is defined in terms of their food/feed and environmental safety, issues that should be proactively considered from the very start of a GM research and development project to ensure regulatory compliance. These safety aspects of sustainability are not disputed and are similar for all markets, but GM crop sustainability also includes a socioeconomic aspect that can vary dramatically between different markets. It should therefore come as no surprise that the socioeconomic sustainability and benefit of the currently available GM crops have been questioned in many developing countries. Even in countries where the potential socioeconomic impact of GMOs is considered before general release, this is only done as part of regulatory compliance with the aim of limiting undesired *ex post* impacts and is not intended to be a comprehensive feasibility analysis. To ensure the sustainable adoption and use of GMOs in a particular environment, these aspects should be considered proactively during the development process of the specific product. The integrated, proactive assessment of both the biosafety and socioeconomic aspects, i.e. a continuous sustainability assessment, of a new GMO is therefore critical to ensure the development of sustainable products for African agriculture that will impart a real benefit to the adopters of the technology (Figure 8.1).

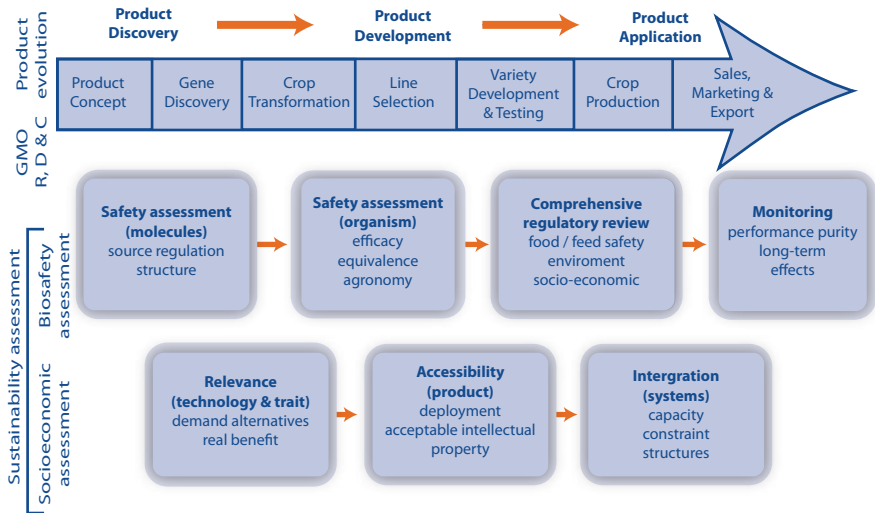


Figure 8.1: Integrating sustainability assessments into a GMO crop R,D&C programme

To be sustainable, GMOs for African agriculture have to be safe, relevant and accessible. The best way to ensure this is to develop these crops locally, based on local knowledge, priorities, capacities and constraints.

4 Sustainability assessment of GMOs

Sustainability was previously defined on the basis of its three contributing aspects, i.e. food/feed safety, environmental safety and socioeconomic feasibility. However, when using it as an integrated tool for decision-making in a GMO R,D&C programme, it is more relevant to define it chronologically. I will therefore briefly discuss the seven sequential sustainability assessment clusters as indicated in Figure 8.1 and illustrate the principle of integrated sustainability assessment by way of a few examples in each cluster.

- (a) Biosafety assessment – at molecular level:** Even before the first construct is developed for a transformation programme, the possible implications of the individual genetic

components and interventions should be considered. This early-stage, strategic assessment could help to ensure that the final product will be safe and viable. Possible impacts of the molecular biology interventions/protocols and tools that are used during the transformation programme include the following:

- The choice of a particular transformation system can impact on transgene copy number and the presence of partial vector sequences.
- Using tissue-specific promoter sequences could reduce the possible environmental impact of the transgene.
- Certain selectable markers such as antibiotic resistance genes might be prohibited in certain regulatory territories.
- Under the current South African legislation the use of a human gene will have specific labelling implications while analogues from different sources will not.

(b) Biosafety assessment – at organism level: Both the selection of a particular organism/ crop and the GM trait(s) of the resulting organism should be considered at an early stage. Possible risks associated with different organisms will obviously vary – targeting a particular crop disease via the causative agent, its possible vectors or the crop itself will, for example, have very different possible impacts.

- Modifying food crops to sustain industrial applications could also have significant socioeconomic impacts.
- The availability of biological containment measures could play a significant role in risk management strategies.
- The introduction of a GM crop into its geographical centre of origin or where sexually compatible wild relatives are present would imply vertical gene flow, which could limit the type of GM traits that could be transferred to that particular crop.

(c) Biosafety assessment – comprehensive regulatory overview: The regulatory overview or development of the regulatory dossier for a GMO constitutes the compre-

hensive characterisation of the final transgenic line that has been earmarked for commercialisation, i.e. the GM product. At this stage, all the aspects of biosafety, i.e. food/feed safety and environmental safety, and where appropriate, the potential socioeconomic impacts of the GMO are considered.

- As part of the food/feed safety assessment, possible toxic components, allergens, nutrients and their interactions will be investigated, with the frame of reference for many of these studies being substantial equivalence.
- Possible environmental impacts will be considered with reference to the new GM trait and where relevant, e.g. the transgene's possible impact on the competitiveness of the organism, the potential for gene flow and its likely impact, non-target organisms and resistance development.
- Currently, no clear guidelines exist for evaluating the possible socioeconomic impacts of GMOs, but it is probably fair to say that current evaluations focus on ensuring that the impacted industry and the majority of its stakeholders will not be disadvantaged by the release of the GMO. Possible changes in agricultural practices and potential gains and losses in agricultural inputs, yields and markets are also considered.

(d) Biosafety assessment – monitoring: In most countries the release of GMOs is conditional on post-release monitoring to gauge possible long-term effects and to ensure the employment of prescribed management practices, e.g. the use of refugia as part of a resistance management programme. One strategic aspect to assess here is the identification of measurable endpoints, e.g. exactly how will non-target impacts be evaluated over time?

(e) Socioeconomic assessment – relevance: When considering the use of GM technology, its relevance to a particular targeted community should be carefully considered. As stated earlier, the focus should be on the intended product and its potential benefits and not on the technology. The potential benefit for the specific target market/community under their particular circumstances should be clearly

described. The benefit should be a priority for the targeted community. Other technologies that could deliver the same benefit and the acceptability of GM technology should also be considered.

- (f) **Socioeconomic assessment - accessibility:** Many technical and practical aspects surrounding the deployment of a GMO can impact on its accessibility in a developing country.
- The potential costs or legal obligations associated with intellectual property rights could impact on many of the technology packages that have been used during the development of a GMO. Also, technology deployment should never be at the expense of freedom to choose.
 - Management practises associated with particular GM traits could make them non-viable on a small scale or in an informal environment, e.g. seed-saving and associated introgression could contribute to resistance development.
 - Cultural practices and preferences could impact on the acceptability of a particular trait, e.g. yellow maize as a result of high β -carotene levels for human consumption, or the presence of an inconspicuous trait in an unacceptable variety.
- (g) **Socioeconomic assessment – integration:** Integrating GM technology effectively and seamlessly into current local agricultural systems is crucial for the sustainable use of the technology. If the deployment of GM technology remains dependent on sophisticated distribution, implementation and management programmes, the distribution of its benefits will be severely limited in the developing world. Again, the sustainable solution is to focus more widely on issues such as institutional development than just on the technology.

5 Conclusion

A final strategic aspect of sustainability that deserves brief mention is the public acceptance of GM technology. Other applications of GM technology, such as that in the medi-

OPINION PAPER: SUSTAINABLE GMO TECHNOLOGIES FOR AFRICAN AGRICULTURE

Dr Jan-Hendrik Groenewald

cal industry have not initiated as many negative perceptions, most probably because the potential benefit/risk ratio is perceived to be much more favourable in these applications. The nature of the debate on GM foods will therefore probably change significantly when more products are developed that deliver a tangible benefit to the end consumer. Developing such products specifically for application in the developing world and ensuring that they are supported with credible biosafety and sustainability data and underpinning principles as described above, will help to ensure that the true potential of GM technology can be unlocked for African agriculture.

Acknowledgements

The activities of Biosafety South Africa are funded by the National Department of Science and Technology. I would like to thank Dr Sarita Groenewald and Jill Johns for their contributions through critical discussion and reviewing of this document.





9

Agricultural Biotechnology: Does it work in Africa?

Mrs Remi Akanbi

AGRICULTURAL BIOTECHNOLOGY: DOES IT WORK IN AFRICA? MRS REMI AKANBI

AfricaBio, South Africa

1 Introduction

Africa is home to over 900 million people representing 14% of the world's population. It is the only continent where food production *per capita* is decreasing and where hunger and malnutrition afflict at least one in three people (James, 2008). Africa is recognised as the continent that represents by far the biggest challenge in terms of adoption and acceptance of new technologies.

Present agricultural practices in Africa are not producing adequate amounts of food for its growing population (Blancfield *et al.*, 2008). For this reason farmers are putting additional pressure on the environment in their quest to feed more and more people.

Success in meeting these challenges will depend on the unearthing of new information and knowledge, and the development and use of new technologies. If these are combined with the broader adaptation of existing technologies, it will allow increased crop production on the continent.

Africa is yet to fulfil its food production potential and it is especially vulnerable in terms of food security (Brink *et al.*, 1998). To meet Africa's food requirements, it is therefore necessary to increase the efficiency of food production. Several key factors including plant biotechnology are required for improved crop production.

New technologies need to be assessed to determine the role they can play in improving crop yield, controlling diseases and pests and improving nutritional content. Africa is very poor and challenges to the development and effective use of biotechnology exist not only in financial constraints but also in policy, national capacities, information access and the regulatory environment.

2 Agricultural biotechnology

Agricultural biotechnology has been around for centuries. Mankind has been manipulating living organisms for thousands of years. Three thousand years ago civilisations were using yeast to make bread, beer and wine and using bacteria to extract minerals from ore; for the past 500 years we have been selectively breeding crops and since 1920 we have been able to increase crop yields six-fold (Evansa & Fischerb, 1999).

Agricultural biotechnology is vital for addressing the chronic food shortages in sub-Saharan Africa. Despite the Green Revolution, crop yields in sub-Saharan Africa have hardly changed over the past 40 years and cereal production *per capita* is steadily declining. It has been estimated that with current yields the projected shortfall of cereals will be 88.7 million tons by 2025 (Thompson, 2002).

3 The role of biotechnology in Africa

Biotechnology offers considerable opportunity for addressing many of Africa's pressing challenges. Ongoing biotechnology research in Africa focuses largely on attempting to solve local problems associated with food production, health and the environment.

Biotechnology can play a role in increased global crop productivity to improve food, feed and fibre security in sustainable crop production systems that also conserve biodiversity. It can contribute to the alleviation of poverty and hunger, augmentation of traditional plant breeding, reduce the environmental footprint of agriculture, mitigate climate change and reduce greenhouse gases and contribute to the cost-effective production of biofuel.

4 The status of biotechnology in Africa

Genetic modification technology is being employed only in a very few African countries, namely South Africa, Zimbabwe, Egypt, Kenya, Burkina Faso, Uganda and Malawi, and to a lesser extent in Mauritius. Of all these countries, only South Africa, Egypt and Burkina Faso have reached the commercialisation stage. The remaining countries have either

only recently approved contained trials of crops such as cotton and maize (e.g. Kenya, Uganda, Zimbabwe and Malawi), or do not as yet have any regulatory or scientific capacity to conduct such trials.

Most countries in Africa have ratified the Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety (CPB) and have received United Nations Environment Programme – Global Environment Facility (UNEP-GEF) assistance to formulate their biosafety frameworks. Only a few have functioning biosafety legislation that allows field trials of GM products (South Africa, Zimbabwe, Malawi, Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, Burkina Faso, Ghana, Nigeria, Egypt, Tunisia, Morocco, Mauritania).

5 Challenges

- A third of the African population suffers from chronic hunger.
- There is a volatile political environment in most African countries.
- Lack of biosafety regulation is the biggest limitation to biotech growth in Africa. Changing regulatory regimes or lack of them have serious implications for the development of biotechnology in Africa. Biosafety regulations and legislation are in place only in a few countries in Africa, and such a limitation is a serious constraint that impairs the use, evaluation and release of GMOs.
- Extension services are virtually non-existent.
- The media and anti-biotechnology groups: three countries in Africa have commercialised biotechnology crops and a few are conducting or are on the verge of conducting confined or field trials. Anti-biotech campaigners will increasingly target these countries.
- Public awareness and acceptance – biotechnology regulation is essential to promote public interest and ensure safety. Consumer acceptance will increase when there is confidence in the checks and balances that biosafety regulations offer.

6 Opportunities

There is political will for biotech in Africa. The lack of priority setting in agricultural research is evident in many African countries, which is reflected in a lack of awareness and commitment by the national governments. Continuous technical and financial support will assist Africa to create an enabling environment for biotechnology to thrive.

Over 90% of sub-Saharan Africa relies on rain-fed agriculture. Severe drought occurs approximately every eight years. Drought-tolerance technology could help farmers to maximise their inputs and management practices and protect their investments in times of water shortages. Without Africa-focused R&D, capacity building and policies that enable the safe and beneficial use of biotechnology, African farmers may be denied access to drought-tolerance technology.

Biotechnology products in the pipeline that will revolutionise agriculture in Africa for the poor are drought-tolerant, nitrogen-efficient and biofortified crops. South Africa has the capacity, expertise, experience, enabling legislations and resources to lead the continent in R&D, innovations and expanding crop acre. South Africa's experience and vast capacity should be shared with the rest of Africa.

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), launched in 2000 (MDG Africa Steering Group, 2008), consist of eight key objectives, one of which is the eradication of poverty and hunger in Africa by 2015. The G8 nations have, however, been lagging behind in their commitments to boost aid to Africa. With rising food prices, hunger and poverty the G8 leaders are under immense pressure to do something.

We need to ensure the renewal of the G8's commitments by developing an initiative to tap into the G8's resources and those of other organisations, such as the World Bank and the FAO, which would help Africa to realise some key MDGs.

Networking and training opportunities in Africa should be continued. Linkages between African countries as well as with the developed world should be stimulated through existing networks and joint projects.

7 The South African experience

South Africa became the first country in Africa to adopt GM crops when it approved its first transgenic crops for commercial use in 1997. To date the commercial release of insect-resistant (*Bt*) cotton and maize as well as herbicide-tolerant (RR) soya beans, cotton and maize have been approved in South Africa. In October 2005, stacked-gene cotton (*Bt* & RR) was approved and in March 2007 the stacked-gene maize (*Bt* & RR) was approved. The present national GM crop percentages are: cotton 90%, white maize 56%, yellow maize 72% and soya 80% (James, 2008).

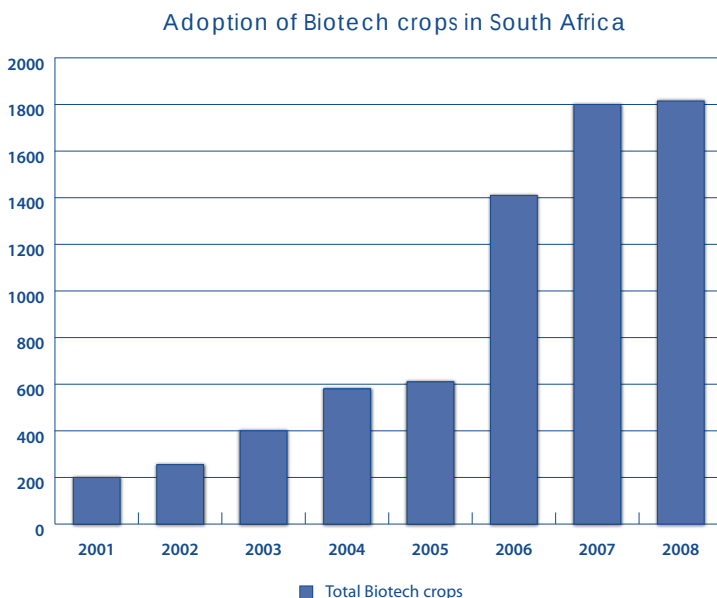


Figure 9.1: Adoption of GM crops in South Africa (James, 2008)

For the first 12 years of commercialisation of biotech crops from 1996 to 2007, South Africa was the only country on the African continent to benefit from commercialising biotech crops. In 2008, Burkina Faso grew 8 500 ha of *Bt* cotton for seed multiplication and initial commercialisation, and Egypt grew 700 ha of *Bt* maize for the first time (James, 2008).

Table 9.1: Total area of GM crops planted in South Africa in 2008 (James, 2008)

Crop	Total area	Area GM	% GM	Remarks
Maize				
White maize	1 600 000 ha	891 000 ha*	56%	* Bt/HT 164 000 ha (83%) HT 148 000 ha (9%) Bt 576 000 ha (8%)
Yellow maize	1 000 000 ha	720 000 ha*	72%	* Bt/HT 138 000 ha (83%) HT 131 000 ha (9%) Bt 455 000 ha (72%)
Soybeans	230 000 ha	184 000 ha*	80%	* HT soybeans
Cotton	13 000 ha	12 000 ha*	92%	* Bt/HT 10 000 ha (83%) HT 1 000 ha (9%) Bt 950 ha (8%)

8 Socioeconomic benefits of GM crops in South Africa

In South Africa a study published in 2005 involving 368 small and resource-poor farmers and 33 commercial farmers, the latter divided into irrigated and dry-land maize production systems. The data indicated that under irrigated conditions, *Bt* maize resulted in an 11% higher yield (from 10.9 MT to 12.1 MT/ha), a cost savings in insecticides of US\$18/ha equivalent to a 60% cost reduction, and an increased income of US\$117/ha. Under rain-fed conditions, *Bt* maize resulted in an 11% higher yield (from 3.1 to 3.4 MT/ha), a cost saving on insecticides of US\$7/ha equivalent to a 60% cost reduction, and an increased income of US\$35/ha (Gouse *et al.*, 2005). Farmers are paying premium prices for the use of the technology because of increased productivity and efficiency gains (Brookes & Barfoot, 2008).

South Africa is estimated to have increased farming income from biotech maize, soybean and cotton by US\$383 million in the period between 1998 and 2007, with benefits for 2007 alone estimated at US\$227 million (Brookes & Barfoot, 2009).

9 Conclusion

With the commercialisation of biotechnology products in other parts of Africa, South Africa is no longer the sole producer of biotechnology products in Africa. However, the country remains the pioneer of the technology and is a role model for the rest of Africa.

South Africa is seen as the hub of agricultural biotechnology for Africa as it is one of the few countries in Africa that has a well-developed regulatory system and the expertise to manage the technology. However, South Africa seems to be moving towards stricter legislation which is not based on scientific fact.

There is therefore a need in South Africa to ensure that decision-makers who develop policies, amend and enforce the existing legislation and regulations are continuously educated and well informed on biosafety and biotechnology.

GM crops can contribute to improved food security and poverty alleviation in Africa. Developing farmers in Africa have shown that they are able to access the benefits of GM crops, but they need good governance, financial support, skills training, market access, the support of competent extension services and an adequate rural infrastructure.

Bibliography

Blanchfield, J.R., Lund, D. & Spiess, W. 2008. Report on the Food Security Forum. Held in conjunction with the 14th World Congress of Food Science and Technology, Shanghai, China, 19-23 October 2008.

Brink, J.A., Woodward B.R. & DaSilva, E.J. 1998. Plant biotechnology: a tool for development in Africa. *Electronic Journal of Biotechnology*, 1(3).

Brookes, G. & Barfoot, P. 2008. GM crops: global socio-economic and environmental impacts 1996–2006. Dorchester, UK: PG Economics Ltd, 118 p.

Brookes, G. & Barfoot, P. 2009. GM crops: global socio-economic and environmental impacts 1996–2007. Dorchester, UK: PG Economics Ltd.

Evansa, L.T. & Fischerb, R.A. 1999. Yield potential: its definition, measurement, and significance. *Crop Science*, 39: 1544-1551.

AGRICULTURAL BIOTECHNOLOGY: DOES IT WORK IN AFRICA?

Mrs Remi Akanbi

Gouse, M., Pray, C., Kirsten, J.F. & Schimmelpfennig, D. 2005. A GM subsistence crop in Africa: the case of *Bt* white maize in South Africa. *International Journal of Biotechnology*, 7(1/2/3): 84-94.

James, C. 2008. Global status of commercialised biotech/GM crops: 2008. *ISAAA Brief No. 39*. Ithaca, NY: International Service for the Acquisition of Agri-Biotech Applications (ISAAA).

MDG Africa Steering Group. 2008. Recommendations of the MDG Africa Steering Group launched at African Union Summit on 1 July 2008. Available at: [http://www.mdgafrica.org/pdf/MDG Africa Steering Group Recommendations - English - HighRes.pdf](http://www.mdgafrica.org/pdf/MDG%20Africa%20Steering%20Group%20Recommendations%20-%20English%20-%20HighRes.pdf)2008.

Thompson, J.A. 2002. Research needs to improve agricultural productivity and food quality, with emphasis on biotechnology. Department of Molecular and Cell Biology, University of Cape Town, Cape Town.



10

Regulation of GMO Activities in South Africa: Experience from a Technology Developer

Ms Michelle Vosges

REGULATION OF GMO ACTIVITIES IN SOUTH AFRICA: EXPERIENCE FROM A TECHNOLOGY DEVELOPER

MS MICHELLE VOSGES

Monsanto, Johannesburg, South Africa

1 Introduction

As a technology developer, one experiences various challenges as a result of the regulatory frameworks in particular countries. This also applies to the biosafety framework in operation in South Africa. These challenges are discussed below, with some recommendations.

2 Discussion

Challenges are experienced at various levels: design of the legislative framework, operational procedures and authorisations granted. These levels are discussed below.

2.1 Legislative Framework

A functional, practical and operational biosafety framework in a country is essential for a technology developer to invest in that country. More importantly though, protection of the technology and rights of the developer should be provided for in such legislation. The provisions of the legislation must be conducive for an application to be made and activities to be conducted in that country. Assessments should be science-based and reviews conducted in a transparent manner with clear communication on the requirements, review process and reasons for decisions taken.

In many countries a lack of knowledge, third party influences and political pressure can lead to “over-regulation” of the technology. This very often results in the requirements and restrictions imposed on activities being so strict that the developer is unable to meet the requirements and restrictions, which means that the developer does not invest in that

REGULATION OF GMO ACTIVITIES IN SOUTH AFRICA: EXPERIENCE FROM A TECHNOLOGY DEVELOPER *Ms Michelle Vosges*

particular country, thus preventing access to the technology and the eventual “killing” of the technology in that country.

Biotechnology products have been used safely in many countries for many years. This implies that a country that does not have experience in the regulation of this technology can obtain not only guidance in the safety assessments of biotechnology products, but also information and data from reviews already conducted by other regulatory authorities.

Although it is still a relatively new technology, the developments in this field are tremendous. From planting single events in the beginning, we are now moving towards commercialising products containing four or more traits in a single product. This, however, provides challenges to the regulators as to how they will assess these new stacked products, as the approach followed for assessments for single events would not be practical for stacked products.

2.2 Operational Procedures

2.2.1 Applications

The process of applying for authorisation and the review process must be practical and reasonable. Application forms must be easy to understand with clear directions on which application is applicable to which activity. As the technology develops and experience is gained by regulators, it is obvious that application requirements and forms will change from time to time. It is, however, important that any change be communicated to the developers in a transparent and efficient way to enable a smooth transition from one set of requirements/forms to another.

Several committees and experts are involved during review of an application, requiring the need for several copies of the application to be submitted to the authorities. It is recognised that it may not always be possible and may be a challenge in some developing countries, but the replacement of hard copies with electronic copies could save time and costs for the regulators and developers.

As indicated before, this technology is moving fast and stacked products will be prominent in the future. It is therefore unavoidable that activities containing more than one transgenic product will be present in single activities such as confined field releases. It is therefore important that the regulatory process be structured in such a manner that applications that enable such activities are possible.

2.2.2 Review process

Time is always of the essence for developers, hence the review process must be conducted in such a manner that any additional information/clarity required from the applicant is requested in a coordinated manner. Requesting additional information/data from an applicant at various intervals during the review process not only frustrates the regulatory system, but also delays the time in which an application is processed.

Certain information is definitely required to enable an informed decision on the safety of a product or proposed activity. However, regulators should refrain from requesting information or data from the developer that are not relevant to the safety assessment ("nice-to-know" data). These requirements often result in unnecessary costs and time delays, without adding substance to the decision on safety.

The developer aims to provide enough information and data to enable a scientific safety assessment of a product. In the event that additional information or data is requested, the developer would aim to address the outstanding issues as quickly as possible, as it means that the review process can be continued sooner. However, it is very difficult to respond with the correct information or data if the requests from the regulators are not clear. It is therefore important that the requests be clearly defined. Furthermore, in many instances, concerns could be addressed through direct communication between the individuals/committees assessing the application and the applicant. Opportunities where there could be some sort of direct communication between the review committees and the applicant could ease the review process and again reduce cost and time, without impacting negatively on the quality of the assessment or integrity of the review bodies.

REGULATION OF GMO ACTIVITIES IN SOUTH AFRICA: EXPERIENCE FROM A TECHNOLOGY DEVELOPER *Ms Michelle Vosges*

Although transparency is important, it is well known that there are some institutions that would take certain actions in an attempt to prevent or delay an assessment or activity. It is important that the regulators should therefore manage third parties who participate in the review process through public consultation processes.

2.2.3 Authorisations

Applications are submitted with the intention of conducting the activity in a particular growing season, regardless of the type of activity. The timely issue of permits/authorisations to enable execution in the planned growing season is therefore of crucial importance to developers. Activities with regulated transgenic events are normally subject to specific conditions. These conditions are not only important during the activity *per se*, but are used as a reference by developers when planning future activities. This is especially important during confined field trial activities, when trial sites for activities in the follow-up growing season are selected based on the ability to meet the isolation conditions that were applicable to the same activity in the previous growing season. Although permit conditions are designed on the basis of the specific conditions and product, some conditions would remain constant for similar conditions. Changing conditions, and especially isolation conditions, a few months or weeks prior to a growing season could have serious impacts on the ability of developers to continue with authorised trials, as the trial locations may no longer meet the new isolation conditions.

Conditions should further be practical and in line with current agricultural practices. It serves no purpose to institute conditions that cannot or are very difficult to implement in the field.

As experience is gained by the regulators, permit conditions will be amended. This is very important for adapting to the different requirements applicable during different activities. There should also be a procedure in place whereby developers are able to request amendments and regulators can review proposed amendments and make decisions within a short time period, as there are normally not weeks available in which to deliberate

on whether a proposed condition should be approved or not, and the amendment authorisation be granted.

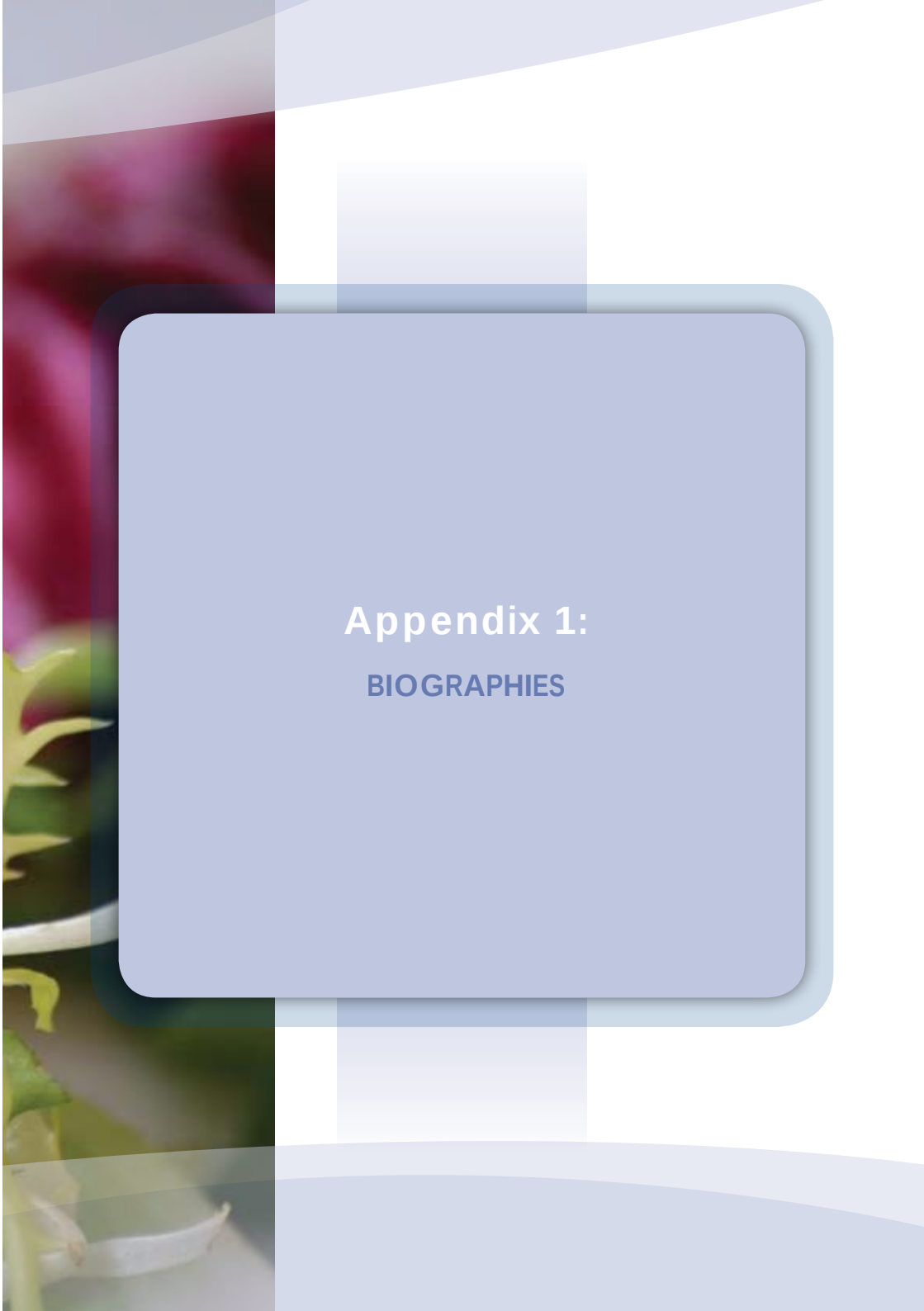
3 Conclusions

Legislative frameworks must be functional, practical and operational, while providing protection of the developer's investment in terms of intellectual property. Application forms should be activity-specific, easily accessible and science-based.

Assessment of applications by regulators should be timely, transparent and focused on information that will assist in determining the safety of the proposed activity and product. Concerns, decisions and reasons for decisions should be communicated in a timely fashion and be clearly stated.

Conditions should be activity-specific, based on agricultural practice and remain consistent to enable implementation, unless supported by scientific evidence that would necessitate any amendment to the conditions.

Applications should be processed within the time periods described in legislative frameworks.



Appendix 1:

BIOGRAPHIES

APPENDIX 1: BIOGRAPHIES

Committee Members

Dr HENNIE GROENEWALD (Chairperson) is the Executive Manager of Biosafety South Africa, a national biosafety platform initiated by the national Department of Science and Technology (DST). Biosafety South Africa supports innovation in biotechnology through the delivery of value-adding services and investment in biosafety research to help ensure the safety and sustainability of biotechnological products. He has a PhD in plant biotechnology and has 20 years of experience in research and development, teaching, project management, entrepreneurship and business development. His research career focused on aspects of plant molecular physiology, biosafety, tissue culture, molecular biology and biochemistry, and he has authored several peer-reviewed papers and patents on these subjects. Prior to joining Biosafety South Africa, he worked at Stellenbosch University and still holds an Extraordinary Senior Lecturer position at that institution. He has previously also worked at the South African Sugarcane Research Institute and has been a visiting researcher at the Texas Agricultural & Medical University, Weslaco, US, the Max Planck Institut für Molekuläre Pflanzenphysiologie, Golm, Germany, and the Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation (CSIRO), Plant Industry, Brisbane, Australia.

Dr ANTONIO LLOBELL is the Chief Executive Officer of PlantBio Trust, which he joined in April 2004. He has played an integral role in building the PlantBio team and growing the portfolio of projects funded by the Trust. He has been instrumental in establishing a wide base of strategic initiatives, both locally and internationally. With more than 12 years of senior management experience in research in the plant and microbial biotechnology field, he was Professor of Plant Biotechnology at the African Centre for Crop Improvement, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg, before joining PlantBio. He has also been Professor Titular at the Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology and Institute of Plant Biochemistry and Photosynthesis, University of Seville and the Spanish National Research Council, CSIC (*Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas*). He has a

strong entrepreneurial background and was co-founder and scientific consultant in Newbiotechnic S.A. (NBT) in Spain, a biotech company specialising in the development of applications for the agri-food and industrial sectors, and in NBT Diagen, S.A., also in Spain, a biotech company commercialising molecular diagnosis services for the medical sector. He has published more than 60 scientific articles in books and first-rated, peer-reviewed international journals and more than 100 communications to national and international congresses. He has also been referee for a number of international journals and is the inventor of six Spanish patent applications and four international patent applications on antifungal genes and proteins, gene expression systems and biocontrol formulations.

Prof. PATRICK RUBAIHAYO is Professor of Crop Science at Makerere University (Uganda). He has expertise in plant breeding, genetics, plant tissue and cell culture, and genomics. He has worked with a number of crops including grain legumes, bananas, tomatoes, potatoes, maize and sorghum. He moved up through the ranks from Special Lecturer to Associate Professor and was appointed Professor in 1995. Prior to joining Makerere University he was a member of the Ugandan parliament and minister of state for agriculture and forestry where he was in charge of the Coffee Rehabilitation Programme, the Agriculture Rehabilitation Project, and agricultural research among other duties. He coordinated the National Banana-Based Cropping Systems Research Programme, the National Pigeon Pea Improvement Programme and the Tomato Improvement Programme. He is a member of the Ugandan National Academy of Sciences.

Prof. EDWARD RYBICKI is a Professor in Microbiology at the University of Cape Town (UCT). He is also a Founder Member of the Institute of Infectious Disease and Molecular Medicine (IIDMM) based in the Health Sciences Faculty (UCT). His main research interests are in making human and animal vaccine candidates in plants and insect cells, these include vaccines for mucosal human papillomaviruses (HPV) and human immunodeficiency virus type 1 (HIV-1) subtype C. He also works on the characterisation and molecular biology of the parrot beak and feather disease virus and the possibility of making vaccines and therapeutics for this viral disease. He also has an interest in the diversity of southern African

Mastreviruses (family Geminiviridae), the molecular determinants of pathogenicity and host range in these viruses, and especially in maize streak virus, the use of geminiviruses as vectors of foreign genes in plants, and in the engineering of viral resistance, especially in maize. He has authored or co-authored some 90 articles in peer-reviewed journals, and approximately 20 book chapters, as well as a number of popular or opinion articles and report-backs in journals. He has deposited a significant number of virus-related nucleic acid sequences in GenBank. He is a Member of the Academy of Science of South Africa.

Speakers

Mrs REMI AKANBI is at present the Director for Project and Operations at AfricaBio, a biotechnology stakeholder association working in South Africa and the SADC region. Since joining AfricaBio, she has headed and participated in research on consumer perceptions and public awareness of biotechnology in South Africa and other southern African countries under various project activities. She has also been involved in demonstrating the impact of agricultural biotechnology on small-scale farmers in South Africa. She has participated in numerous international conventions and conferences and has also made numerous presentations at workshops, to community groups, consumers and farmers. The focus of her current research is the socioeconomic impact of biotechnology on farming communities in South Africa. She has a Master of Science Degree in microbiology from the University of Pretoria.

Dr EUGENIA BARROS is a Research Fellow at the CSIR in the Bio/Chemtek business unit and is the business area manager of the crop genomics group. She studied genetics, biochemistry and microbiology at the University of the Witwatersrand and obtained a PhD in molecular biology at the University of Cape Town. She has more than ten years' experience in molecular marker technology in cereal crops and eucalyptus. She also works closely with the tree improvement group on biotechnology projects. She has worked in research projects involving gene cloning and gene expression of bacteria for industrial applications and in projects involving the development of molecular markers using various

molecular marker technologies for DNA profiling, genetic purity evaluation and marker-assisted selection (MAS) of cereal crops, legumes, trees and fungi. She has also worked on detection methods for genetically modified (GM) plants using protein (ELISA) and DNA methods (normal PCR and real-time PCR). Her research interests are the development of molecular markers linked to genes coding for important traits using cDNA-based marker technologies. It includes the generation of ESTs for both MAS and identification of candidate genes, the generation of diversity arrays, and the integration of bioinformatics with marker-assisted selection. She is involved in DNA fingerprinting of cereal crops, trees, fungi and other plants for identity preservation, parentage analysis, molecular marker development for MAS and for gene identification.

Mr GURLING BOTHMA has recently joined CSIR, and prior to this he was a scientist at the ARC-Rooedeplaar Vegetable and Ornamental Plant Institute, South Africa.

Dr AUGUSTINE GUBBA is a Senior Lecturer in Plant Pathology at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (School of Agricultural Sciences and Agribusiness). He holds a BSc. Agric (Hons) degree from the University of Zimbabwe, an MSc in applied plant sciences from Wye College (University of London) and a PhD in plant pathology from Cornell University (USA). His area of expertise is plant virology focusing on the identification and characterisation of viruses, developing sustainable control strategies for plant viral diseases and plant transformation for transgenic virus resistance. He has worked in both agricultural extension and research in Zimbabwe. His research interests are on developing transgenic vegetables with broad resistance to virus infection. He is currently investigating the development of sweet potato plants with multiple resistance to different viruses that infect the crop under field conditions. In 2005, he spent a six-month sabbatical attached to the USDA in Hilo, Hawaii studying the transgenic papaya that has been commercialised. He intends to play an active role in current efforts to use biotechnology to address some of the agricultural challenges facing Africa.

Prof. HANS-WALTER HELDT is Emeritus Professor at the University of Göttingen in the Plant Biochemistry Section of the Albrecht von Haller Institute for Plant Sciences. He studied

chemistry at the Universities of Innsbruck (Austria), Marburg (Germany) and Edinburgh (Scotland), and obtained his D.Phil. from the University of Marburg, where he also served as Scientific Assistant at the Institute for Physiological Chemistry. He has worked in the sabbaticals in the Department of Plant Industry, CSIRO, in Canberra, Australia, and was Director of the Albrecht von Haller Institute for Plant Sciences at Göttingen. From 2000 to 2006 he served as representative of the Union of German Academies of Science in the InterAcademy Panel. Prof. Heldt's interests are metabolite transport across cellular and subcellular membranes of plants, photosynthesis metabolism and gene technology. He is the author of the textbook *Plant Biochemistry*, which is in its 4th German edition – there are also US, Japanese, Chinese and Indian editions of the book, with a Russian edition in preparation.

Dr YOUSUF MAUDARBOCUS is a physicist with broad experience in project management and is a lecturer at the University of Mauritius. As Regional Programme Manager for Africa with the Department of Technical Cooperation of the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), Vienna, Austria, he evaluated, designed and formulated technical co-operation projects for African member states. He managed several projects in the fields of human health (radiotherapy, nuclear medicine, radiation protection), food and agriculture (pest eradication, food preservation, crop improvement, animal disease monitoring), water resources management (especially ground water assessment), pollution monitoring (mainly the marine environment) and industrialisation (non-destructive testing and tracer techniques, strengthening of materials through irradiation). He also led multi-disciplinary team missions and conducted programming and project monitoring missions in various African member states. He is an ex-IAEA member and he is currently a member of the Mauritius Academy of Science & Technology. He has a PhD in physics from the University of London.

Prof. CARL MBOFUNG is the Director and Lecturer for the National Advanced School of Agro-Industrial Sciences (ENSAIC) at the University of Ngaoundere in Cameroon. He is also a member of the Cameroon Academy of Science.

Dr DENNIS OBONYO is a Biosafety Specialist in a major biosafety capacity-building project for sub-Saharan Africa, implemented through a partnership between the International Centre for Genetic Engineering and Biotechnology (ICGEB) and the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation. He is based at the Cape Town component of the ICGEB. Prior to joining the ICGEB he worked as KARI Deputy Co-ordinator of the BiosafeTrain Project (a DANIDA-funded programme involved in building capacity for biosafety and ecological impact assessment of transgenic plants in East Africa [DANIDA; Danish International Development Agency: KARI; Kenya Agricultural Research Institute]) in Nairobi, Kenya. He was also the theme leader of the Environmental Impacts Assessment group (responsible for conducting studies on the potential impacts of *Bt* maize on non-target arthropods in Kenya) of the Insect-Resistant Management for Africa (IRMA) project (a Syngenta Foundation funded joint KARI-CIMMYT programme)(CIMMYT; International Maize and Wheat Improvement Centre). He has a PhD in entomology from the University of Nairobi.

Dr GOSPEL OMANYA is the Seed Systems Manager at the African Agricultural Technology Foundation (AATF). He is an accomplished plant breeder and geneticist with a PhD in plant genetics and breeding from the University of Hohenheim in Germany. He has worked for the International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics (ICRISAT), Sahelian Centre in Niamey (Niger) as a Special Project Scientist responsible for pearl millet improvement for West and Central Africa, where he facilitated the development of farmer-managed seed production and distribution systems. At the AATF he oversees the formulation and implementation of technology deployment policies and strategies, including stewardship, products demonstration and delivery to target users in Africa. His biography was also in the *Marquis Who's Who in Science and Engineering* (2008–2009).

Ms MICHELLE VOSGES is currently responsible for matters pertaining to regulatory affairs at Monsanto South Africa. Prior to joining Monsanto she worked at the Biosafety Directorate of the Department of Agriculture. After eight years at the Department and as Registrar for the Genetically Modified Organisms Act, 1997, she joined Syngenta South Africa as Regulatory Affairs Manager for Biotechnology. She has a Masters' degree in plant physiology from the University of Pretoria.

Staff Members

Prof. ROSEANNE DIAB is the full-time Executive Officer of ASSAf and Emeritus Professor in the School of Environmental Sciences, University of KwaZulu-Natal. She is a Member of ASSAf and is recognised for her research contributions in the field of atmospheric sciences, particularly air quality, and more generally environmental management. She is a Fellow of the University of KwaZulu-Natal and of the South African Geographical Society. She has been a Fulbright senior research scholar, is a member of a number of international bodies such as the International Ozone Commission (IOC) and the Commission on Atmospheric Chemistry and Global Pollution (CACGP), and serves on the editorial board of the journal *Atmospheric Environment*.

Dr NTHABISENG TAOLE is a Project Manager at ASSAf. Her primary responsibility is to lead and manage the implementation of the ASSAf's approved projects. She was also a study director for the consensus study entitled *A Strategic Approach to Scholarly Publishing in Books and Book Chapters in South Africa*. She serves on the ASSAf task team on "A Possible Scholarly Publishing Platform". She also serves on the ASSAf peer-review panel on Agriculture and Related Basic Life Sciences. Before joining ASSAf she worked as systems manager at the National University of Lesotho Library and as ICT Advocacy Manager at the Southern African NGO Network (SANGOnET). She holds a PhD in information science from the University of Pretoria.

Ms PHAKAMILE MNGADI is a Project Officer at ASSAf. She is responsible for all administrative aspects of the GMOs Forum project. She is also responsible for the "Consensus Study on Clinical Research in South Africa", the "Consensus Study on Long-term Strategy on the Burden of HIV/AIDS" and a "Forum Study on Improving Maternal, Newborn and Child Health in Africa". Prior to joining ASSAf, she worked for the Medical Research Council as a project leader for a microbiocide clinical trial. She has a Masters degree in biotechnology from the Durban University of Technology.



Appendix 2:

WORKSHOP PROGRAMME

APPENDIX 2: WORKSHOP PROGRAMME

WORKSHOP AGENDA/PROGRAMME

GMOs FOR AFRICAN AGRICULTURE: OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES

DATE: 17-18 September 2009

VENUE: ASSAf Offices [Persequor Park, Lynnwood, Pretoria SOUTH AFRICA]

DAY 1 (17 September 2009): Chaired by DR HENNIE GROENEWALD	
09:30-10:00	TEA/ARRIVALS
10:00-10:10	Opening/Welcoming Remarks PROF. ROSEANNE DIAB <i>[ASSAf Executive Officer]</i>
10:10-10:20	Overview/Introductions PROF. ROSEANNE DIAB <i>[ASSAf Executive Officer]</i>
10:20-10:45	Introduction and problem statement DR GOSPEL OMANYA – African Agricultural Technology Foundation (AATF) [Kenya]
10:45-12:30	Presentations [20-25 minutes each] The situation concerning GM crop plants in Germany PROF. HANS-WALTER HELDT – Union of German Academies of Sciences and Humanities [Germany] The role of GMOs in Africa: Food and nutrition security PROF. CARL MBOFUNG – University of Ngaoundere [Cameroon] Transgenic plants with virus resistance: opportunities and challenges for Africa DR AUGUSTINE GUBBA – University of KwaZulu-Natal [South Africa]
12:30-13:00	DISCUSSION
13:00-13:45	LUNCH

13:45–15:00	Presentations [20-25 minutes each] - Challenges of GM technologies [with a focus on potential risks, how these risks are addressed through policy, legal and administrative frameworks including risk assessment] MR ABISAI MAFA – National Biotechnology Authority [Zimbabwe] - Challenges of regulating agricultural biotechnology in Africa PROF. DIRAN MAKINDE – West African Bioscience Network (WABNet) [Senegal] - Challenges for GM technologies: Evidence-based evaluation of the potential environmental impacts of GM crops DR DENNIS NDOLO OBONYO – International Centre for Genetic Engineering and Biotechnology (ICGEB) [South Africa (base)]
15:00-15:30	DISCUSSION
15:30-15:50	TEA BREAK
15:50-16:30	Group discussion and closure for the day
DAY 2 (18 September 2009): Chaired by PROF. PATRICK RUBAIHAYO	
09:30-09:45	Re-cap from DAY 1 and Outline for DAY 2
09:45-10:45	Presentations [20-25 minutes each] - Systems biology approach to the evaluation of GM plants: a case study DR EUGENIA BARROS – Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) [South Africa] - Commercialisation of a GM potato for South Africa developed by publicly funded research organisations – lessons learned: a case study MR GURLING BOTHMA – Agricultural Research Council (ARC) [South Africa]
10:45-11:10	DISCUSSION
11:10-11:30	TEA BREAK

11:30-13:00	Presentations [20-25 minutes each] - The use of nuclear techniques to produce improved varieties of food crops in Africa DR YOUSUF MAUDARBOCUS – Mauritius Academy of Science & Technology [Mauritius] - Challenges in effective implementation of biosafety legislative frameworks in Africa MS LILLIAN NFOR - International Centre for Genetic Engineering and Biotechnology (ICGEB) [South Africa (base)] - Sustainable GM technologies for African Agriculture DR JAN-HENDRIK GROENEWALD – Biosafety [South Africa]
13:00-13:30	DISCUSSION
13:30-14:15	LUNCH
14:15-15:15	Presentations [20-25 minutes each] - Agricultural biotechnology: Does it work in Africa? MRS REMI AKANBI – AfricaBio [South Africa] - Regulation of GMO activities in South Africa: Experience from a technology developer MS MICHELLE VOSGES – Monsanto [South Africa]
15:15-15:40	DISCUSSION
15:40	Way forward and closure